DEFINING EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF DISCRETION:

WHEN, WHERE, AND HOW

A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

The construct employee discretion has been researched under many labels (e.g., flexibility, autonomy). As a result, employee discretion has been operationalized differently across multiple streams of research leading to construct deficiency, contamination, and confounding. The current study contributes to the research literature in three distinct ways. First, the literature on employee discretion is reviewed, in order to clearly differentiate the three primary conceptualizations of employee discretion: choice over when, where, and how one works. Second, the influence of these three forms of discretion on both work-related outcomes (job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions) and nonwork-related outcomes (life satisfaction, work-to-nonwork conflict, negative physical health symptoms and psychological health symptoms) was examined in order to reveal the relative impact of each form of discretion using distinct measures. Third, three potential moderators (role ambiguity, locus of control, and perceived organizational support) of the employee discretion-outcome relationship were examined in order to determine if there are important boundary conditions to the benefit of the various forms of employee discretion.

Faculty members are frequently given a high degree of discretion over *when*, *where*, and *how* they conduct many aspects of their work, particularly their research-related tasks. Despite the many advantages of employee discretion, many faculty members report feeling pressured, stressed, and experience conflict between work and non-work roles, suggesting the possibility that too much discretion can be problematic.

Survey data were collected from a sample of 1223 faculty members. Results revealed main effects for discretion over *how* work is conducted on work-related outcomes while discretion over *when* and *where* had main effects on almost all work and nonwork-related outcomes examined. Contrary to expectations, discretion appeared to have linear rather than nonlinear effects on all the outcomes examined and combinations of multiple forms of discretion did not yield synergistic effects. Role ambiguity moderated the relationship between the *where* dimension of discretion and several outcomes, such that individuals with high levels of role ambiguity and high levels of discretion over *where* they work had worse outcomes than individuals with low role ambiguity and low levels of discretion over *where* they work. These results suggest that employees unclear about their responsibilities benefit less from discretion over *where* they work. Theoretical and applied implications are discussed.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The evolution of work has led employers to progressively offer employees more discretion within their work roles. This is in part due to the changing nature of work as well as advances in technology and societal needs/expectations (Howard, 1995). In the early part of the 20th century, scientists including Frederick Winslow Taylor and Hugo Münsterburg promoted the study of psychology in the workplace as the science of efficient behavior (Benjamin, 2007; Koppes & Pickren, 2007). The emphasis during this time period was in matching the skills of the worker to the requirements of the job; thus the needs and overall health of workers were often ignored. Work-related tasks were extremely prescribed, leaving employees with very little discretion within their work roles (Perlow, 1999).

In the 1920s, the Hawthorne studies initiated a focus on the influence of worker attitudes and input on organizational outcomes (Benjamin, 2007; Koppes & Pickren, 2007). In an effort to enhance job satisfaction, employers began redesigning jobs to give employees more discretion over how they performed their work. Correspondingly, researchers started to pay attention to the influence of employee discretion on individual and organizational outcomes. As discretion increased in the workplace, researchers have attempted to quantify the merits of employee discretion.

Over the years, multiple terms have been used to refer to various forms of employee discretion including *job autonomy*, *flexibility*, and *control* (see Figure 1).

Correspondingly, multiple overlapping but not completely redundant definitions and operationalizations of these terms have appeared in the research literature. A chronological sampling of the various ways that employee discretion has been conceptualized and operationalized in the research literature is depicted in Table 1. As a result, the meaning and measurement of employee discretion varies from one study to the next, resulting in construct validity concerns and preventing research synthesis which would lead to a more comprehensive understanding of the advantages and disadvantages of the various forms of employee discretion.

The present dissertation contributes to the research literature on employee discretion in three distinct ways. First, a review of the literature on the three primary conceptualizations of employee discretion (choice over when, where, and how one works) is presented in order to clearly differentiate the various forms of employee discretion and demonstrate why research making these distinctions is needed.

Second, the influence of the three forms of discretion on both individual (e.g., job satisfaction, work-to-nonwork conflict, physical health symptoms, psychological health symptoms, and burnout) and organizational outcomes (e.g., turnover intentions) is examined in order to reveal the relative impact of each form of discretion on these outcomes. Whereas many research studies have demonstrated the merits of one or two dimensions of workplace discretion, many of these studies have utilized contaminated measures of discretion, making the results of these studies difficult to interpret.

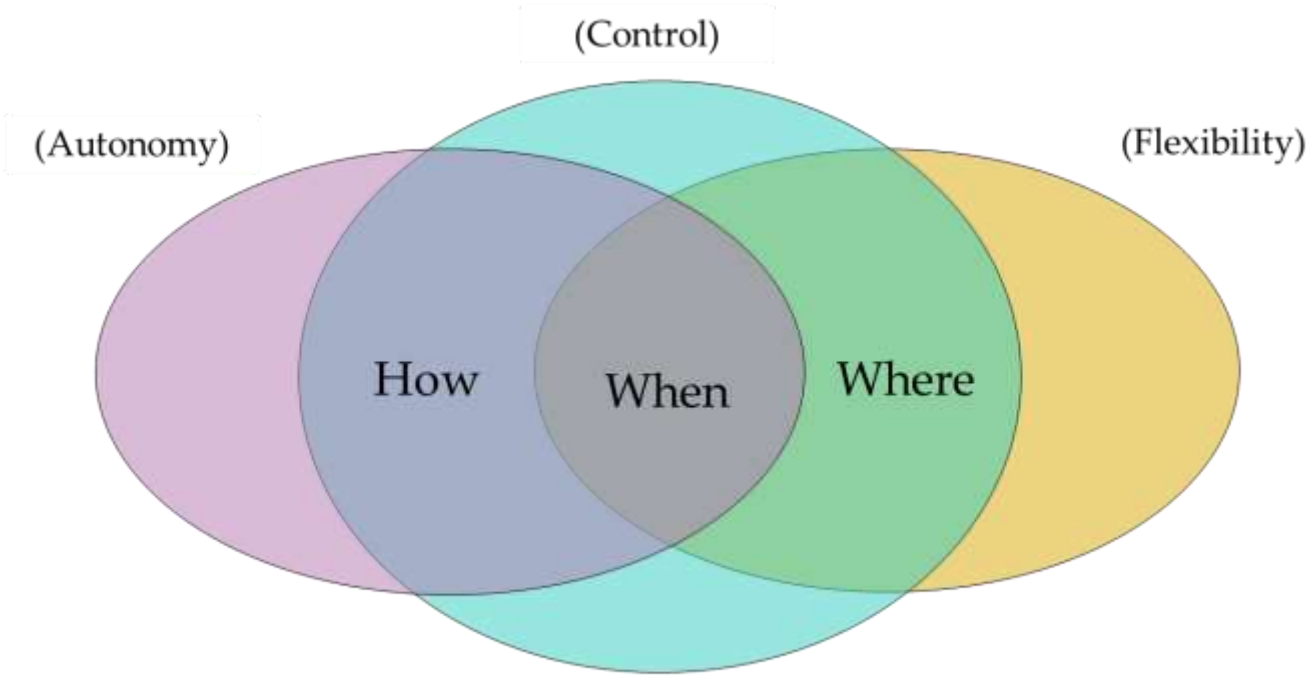

Figure 1. *Conceptualization of Discretion.*

*How, When, & Where are dimensions of discretion. Previous conceptualizations of discretion (i.e., autonomy, control, and flexibility) have included elements of each dimension and therefore overlap. The dimensions of discretion do not inherently belong to any particular conceptualization but rather reflect previous definitions and operationalizations. Discretion includes all three elements.

Table 1

Examples of the Various Ways Discretion Has Been Conceptualized and Operationalized in the Research Literature

Source	Labels/ Dimensions	Definition	Operationalization (Sample Items)	Discretion Dimensions
Hackman & Lawler (1971); Hackman & Oldham (1975)	Autonomy • Method • Schedule	The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out. (Hackman & Lawler, 1971, p. 265; Hackman & Oldham, 1975, p. 162)	How much *autonomy* do you have on your job; how much are you left on your own to do your own work? a) Very little; I have almost no "say" about scheduling my work; the work and the procedures are all laid out for me in detail. b) Moderate autonomy; I make some of the decisions about my work, but many of them are made for me. c)Very much; I have almost all of the "say" about the scheduling of my own work; I alone decide what procedures will be used.	How When
Narayanan & Nath (1982)	Flexitime	A structural intervention designed to give employees greater autonomy in scheduling their work without detriment to the technical, economic, or administrative needs of production (p. 214)	How would you rate your flexibility in scheduling your own tasks?	When (micro)
Breaugh (1989)	Autonomy • Method • Schedule • Criteria	Hackman & Oldham, 1975 (p. 162)	(1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) a. I am free to choose the method(s) when carrying out my work. b. I have control over the scheduling of my work. c. I have some control over what I am supposed to accomplish (what the supervisor sees as my objectives).	How When Criteria
Ashforth & Saks (2000)	Personal Control Job Autonomy	Personal control: A combination of job autonomy and participation in decision making that affects one's	Perceived Control (3 scales): a) Hackman & Oldham, 1975 (autonomy) b) Breaugh, 1985 (autonomy)	How When

Table 1 Continued

Source	Labels/ Dimensions	Definition	Operationalization (Sample Items)	Discretion Dimensions
		job. Job autonomy: the freedom of the individual to be his or her own master within the prescribed task domain, including such facets as work methods, work scheduling and performance goals (p. 313)	c) Hrebiniak, 1974 (participation)	
Spector & Fox, 2003	Factual Autonomy Scale	The Factual Autonomy Scale (FAS) is designed to assess the amount of autonomy an individual has in his or her job. The questions are factual in nature, asking about autonomy over specific things at work as opposed to general judgments about overall autonomy. "…*autonomy* (control over one's own work).." (p. 418)	(1=Never; 5 = Extremely often or always) *In your present job, how often do you have to ask permission…* … to take a rest break? … to take a lunch/meal break? … to leave early for the day? … to change the hours you work? … to leave your office or work station? … to come late to work? … to take time off? (1=Never; 5 = Every Day) *How often do the following events occur in your present job?* How often does someone tell you what you are to do? How often does someone tell you when you are to do your work? How often does someone tell you how you are to do your work?	How, When (micro and macro)
Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton (2006)	Psychological job control • how • when • where	Psychological job control: the degree to which an individual perceives that s/he can control where, when, and how s/he works. (p. 350)	(1 = very little; 5 = very much) a) How much autonomy is on your job? b) To what extent does your job permit you to decide WHEN the work is done? c) To what extent does your job permit you to decide WHERE the work is done?	How When Where

Table 1 Continued

Source	Labels/ Dimensions	Definition	Operationalization (Sample Items)	Discretion Dimensions
Morgeson & Humphrey (2006)	Autonomy • Method • Schedule • Decision latitude	The extent to which a job allows freedom, independence, and discretion to schedule work, make decisions, and choose the methods used to perform tasks (p. 1323)	(1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) a)The job allows me to decide on my own how to go about doing my work. b)The job allows me to plan how I do my work. c)The job provides me with significant autonomy in making decisions.	How When
Gajendran, & Harrison, (2007)	Telecommuting Telecommuting Intensity Autonomy	"Telework is an alternative work arrangement in which employees perform tasks elsewhere that are normally done in a primary or central workplace, *for at least some portion of their work schedule*, using electronic media to interact with others inside and outside the organization (Bailey & Kurland, 2002; Baruch, 2001; Feldman & Gainey, 1997)." Autonomy: "comprises employees' personal assessments of the extent to which they can 'structure and control how and when they do their particular job tasks' (Spector, 1986, p. 1006)." (p. 1525) Telework Intensity: – "the extent or amount of scheduled time that employees spend doing tasks away from a central work location" (p. 1529)	Meta-analysis Telework is a flexplace arrangement offered by organizations. Many telework studies do not measure participants' discretion over where (or when) employees conduct work as a continuous variable, but rather identify participants as either teleworkers or nonteleworkers in a dichotomous fashion. Correspondingly, this is how telework was operationalized in this meta-analysis. Telework intensity was a study level variable operationalized dichotomously as studies of workers averaging 2.5 or more days/week working remotely = high-intensity telecommuters and studies of workers with fewer than 2.5 days/week = low-intensity telecommuters.	How When (macro) Where
Hill, Erickson, Ferris, Holmes, (2008)	Workplace Flexibility; Flexibility in where and when; Work at home	"Flexibility in where (work-at-home) and when (perceived schedule flexibility)" (p.350)	Independent variables measuring Workplace Flexibility were work-at-home, schedule flexibility, and work hours. Work-at-home: dichotomous variable identifying those who responded "at home" when asked,	When (macro) Where

Table 1 Continued

Source	Labels/ Dimensions	Definition	Operationalization (Sample Items)	Discretion Dimensions
			"Which of the following best describes where you do most of your IBM work?" Work-at-home referred to those who chose to complete *most* of their IBM work at home and did not include those who worked from only home occasionally. Schedule flexibility: "How much flexibility (personal control) do you have in scheduling WHEN you do your work (scheduling the hours you work, the time of day, etc.)?" (1= no flexibility to 5= complete flexibility).	
Major, Verive, & Joice, (2008)	Telework	"the practice of working from anywhere at any time" (p. 65)	Telework frequency	When (macro) Where
Dagan et al (2011)	Personal Control	"Individuals' sense of personal control refers to the extent to which individuals believe that they are able to control or influence outcomes in their lives (Pearlin et al., 1981)." (p. 311)	(1=completely disagree to 5 = completely agree) "Sometimes I feel that I am being pushed around in life."	Nonwork Discretion
Kossek & Lautsh (2012)	Autonomy, Flexibility • Time • Place	"The ability to control the timing and location of work is a newer job autonomy design facet that was not as prevalent in the work environment in the late 1970s when the JDS was fashioned but now is a critical part of worker job autonomy." (p. 162)	[Psychological Job Control] (1 = very little; 5 = very much) To what extent do you have control over your work schedule?	How When (macro) Where

Correspondingly, distinct measures of these dimensions are utilized in order to more accurately estimate the relative effect of each dimension, as well as any joint effects. Third, three potential moderators of the employee discretion-outcome relationship are examined in order to determine if there are important boundary conditions surrounding the benefits of the various forms of employee discretion.

In the proceeding sections, some core organizational terms that are important to the meaning of the various forms of employee discretion are reviewed. Three forms of employee discretion are defined as well as why discretion is theoretically desirable. Additionally, the advantages of structure are discussed. Then, a brief review is presented of the research in the two primary domains in which employee discretion has been studied to provide a historical context for the research that has been conducted to date. The commonalities, as well as distinctions, in these two research streams are discussed to provide a foundation for the current study as well as future research examining employee discretion.

Roles vs. Jobs vs. Tasks

When conceptualizing the nature of employee discretion, there are three important terms to differentiate: role, job, and task. These terms are hierarchical in nature, such that role is the broadest term, therefore it belongs at the top of the hierarchy. "*Roles* are sets of expectations about the amount and type of behavior expected of a person holding a particular role" (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991, p. 169). Thus, roles exist in the minds of individuals and are therefore studied in regard to the mutual agreement of expectations and perceptions of behaviors surrounding these roles. Roles are often

associated with specific domains (e.g., work, home, church) and are differentiated based on physical and temporal boundaries. Roles are important and meaningful to multiple disciplines and much of this research has focused on the social domain in which an individual is located (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991). Although Industrial/Organizational psychologists focus primarily on the work role, they tend to divide roles and their corresponding outcomes into two categories: *work* and *nonwork*. Some example work roles include employee, supervisor, and vice president. Some example nonwork roles include sibling, spouse, and parent. Because most people have multiple roles, role researchers have focused on the management of roles and what happens when one experiences within-role and between-role conflicts (Ashforth ,Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000).

A *job* reflects "a set of task elements grouped together under one job title and designed to be performed by a single individual" (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991, p. 173). Jobs are more objective in nature, independent of the incumbents who hold them. Work roles are traditionally associated with jobs within these roles (e.g., nurse, teacher, carpenter); however, non-work roles can have "jobs" within their roles as well. For example, it may be the grandparents' "job" to pick up the kids from school or the dad's "job" to prepare the meals. Research on jobs has tended to focus on job design and the characteristics of the job (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1975), as well as processes or methods involved in completing work-related tasks within the boundaries of the work role.

Tasks are discrete work activities conducted for a unique purpose (Cascio & Aguinis, 2011). For example, tasks for an administrative assistant might include typing

documents, placing phone calls, and ordering office supplies. As noted above, a job usually entails a set of tasks, thus tasks belong under job in the role-job-task hierarchy. However, the same or similar tasks can be associated with multiple jobs.

Roles are often defined by the physical and temporal boundaries within the domain they are located, separating one role from other roles or sets of behaviors. Boundary theory identifies how individuals manage multiple roles separated by spatial and/or temporal boundaries and how people transition between them (Nippert-Eng, 1996; Rau & Hyland, 2002). For example, the office is the physical location where work is typically conducted for many employees and the "work hours" of 8 am to 5 pm define the time in which work is frequently conducted. When employees leave these parameters, they are likely to engage in a different (nonwork) role. This is not to say that work cannot be conducted outside the prescribed temporal or physical boundaries, but rather that these boundaries frame how a role is perceived and violations of expectations surrounding a role can influence outcomes experienced as a result. Each work arrangement is relatively unique, presenting spatial and temporal boundaries defining an employee's roles (Rau & Hyland, 2002). How employees manage these boundaries are influenced and facilitated by their specific work arrangements as well as their nonwork demands.

The result of independent research on jobs and roles is two bodies of research literature examining employee discretion from different perspectives. The job design and redesign literature has focused primarily on how variation in discretion over work tasks (or task-related factors) within a job domain impact individual and organizational

outcomes. Discretion research in the job design literature has taken a more focused or micro-level approach, examining how control over the tasks comprising an employee's job (i.e., methods used, sequence/scheduling of tasks) can influence the results experienced. In other words, the job redesign literature has focused almost exclusively at the task level within the work role/domain.

Alternatively, employee discretion in the role literature has been studied as an organizational intervention (e.g., alternative work schedules) that is designed to help employees manage multiple roles (work and nonwork) and reduce conflict between work and other nonwork roles (e.g., family, personal health). Thus, the role literature has explored how employees' discretion over their work role demands can interact with and influence their nonwork roles/demands. This research has taken a more macro-level approach, focusing on discretion as it applies to a job as a whole, rather than specific tasks. Research in this domain has frequently assessed the ways in which one's work role interferes with one's nonwork roles (and vice versa; Greenhaus & Powell, 2003).

The consequence of these parallel bodies of research is that the same psychological phenomenon (i.e., employee discretion) has been given multiple labels and operationalized differently resulting in construct deficiency, contamination, and confounding. Thus, an additional objective for the current study is to review both bodies of research literature on employee discretion in order to more comprehensively define and appropriately operationalize specific dimensions of the construct. In the next section, the reason why employees seek discretion is reviewed providing the underlying theory for its desirability and influence.

Need for Control

Discretion Is Good

The ability to manipulate or cause a change in one's environment is considered to be a basic need or essential driver of human motivation (Ganster & Fusilier, 1989). Perrewe and Ganster (1989) define control as "the belief that one can influence the environment" (p. 215). Thus, the perceived ability to influence the outcome of events or one's external surroundings is critical to the concept of personal control, which is theoretically beneficial or attractive because it offers greater opportunities for individuals to achieve desired results (Dagan et al., 2011; Ganster & Fusilier, 1989; Rodin, Rennert, & Solomon, 1980).

An individual's personal (or perceived) control can be defined as a psychological phenomenon with both structural and perceived components (Dagan et al., 2011; Ganster & Fusilier, 1989). In other words, there may be idiosyncratic differences between the actual or objective level of influence an individual has over particular outcomes in the environment and his/her subjective perceptions of the ability to influence said outcomes. Thus, personal or individual control reflects the extent to which one believes s/he is able to directly influence outcomes (Dagan et al., 2011; Spector, 1986). Consequently, the feeling of personal control is what makes discretion desirable and the mechanism that explains why discretion is likely to lead to favorable outcomes.

In his job demands-job control model, Karasek (1979) identified job decision latitude as "the working individual's potential control over his tasks and his conduct during the working day" (p. 289-290). The central argument of his job demands-job

control model maintains that the more control one has, the better his/her psychological health. Experimental research supports this, demonstrating positive effects of control on stress-related outcomes. Specifically, individuals with more control demonstrate less negative effects (e.g., anxiety, physiological arousal, impaired performance) in response to physical and psychological stressors than individuals without control or individuals with the ability to predict responses but without control over the stressors (Ganster & Fusilier, 1989; Geer & Maisel, 1972; Glass & Singer, 1972; Stotland & Blumenthal, 1964). In a meta-analysis examining the relationship between perceived control and various employee and job outcomes, Spector (1986) found that perceived control was positively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance and negatively related to emotional distress, role stress, and turnover intentions.

In summary, employee discretion is desirable and sought after because it leads to perceptions of personal control, a basic need. Such control allows individuals to have a greater influence over what happens to them which is associated with many favorable outcomes. Personal control, or the ability to alter one's external environment in order to achieve a desired outcome, has been studied frequently in the organizational literature (Averill, 1973; Ganster & Fusilier, 1989; Miller, 1979; Spector, 1986; Thompson, 1981). Employee discretion grants employees the authority to manipulate structural aspects (e.g., physical and temporal boundaries) of their job. Thus, the reason why discretion is desirable is because it affords employees control whereby they are able to manipulate aspects of their work environment to achieve favorable outcomes. The benefits of

control are sought by many employees and therefore many organizations are finding ways to incorporate more employee discretion (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003)

Despite the seemingly positive influence of personal control, there may be a point at which too much control is problematic. Having control means employees have choices and they have to make decisions. Sometimes making decisions can be stressful (Maule, Hockey, & Bdzola, 2000), particularly when there are many options to choose from (Schwartz, 2004). The more options individuals have, the more likely they are to become overwhelmed by the decisions they face and the more likely they are to make decisions that do not maximize individual and organizational outcomes. Correspondingly, in the next section, a contrary view is presented conveying that employee discretion may be challenging.

Discretion Is Stressful

Some researchers have questioned the extent to which control over one's environment is always beneficial (Brady et al., 1958; Rodin et al., 1980). For example, Rodin et al. (1980) questioned the basic assumption that control is exclusively beneficial and posited that control is only desirable to the extent that it offers increased opportunities to achieve preferable results (Ganster & Fusilier, 1989). Specifically, Rodin et al. concluded "though control may be motivating in many circumstances, this is not the result of an intrinsic need to manipulate the environment per se but rather is a response to believing that such behavior has a greater probability for delivering positive outcomes" (p. 137). Thus, discretion and control are only good if they result in desired outcomes.

The opposite of employee discretion is a lack of authority to make decisions which in theory should result in a lack of control over one's environment. A lack of discretion could be alternatively characterized as an environment providing structure and predictability, which can also be desirable. Research on job standardization sheds some light on why employees also seek and need structure. Job standardization is a process whereby the organization dictates or prescribes how specific tasks or procedures are to be completed/conducted (Dalton, Todor, Spendolini, Fielding, & Porter, 1980; Hsieh & Hsieh, 2003). Research examining job standardization has shown that this form of job structure has a negative relationship with role ambiguity and role conflict, which indirectly diminishes negative employee outcomes such as burnout (Hsieh & Hsieh, 2003). Similarly, Spector (1986) found a moderate negative meta-analytic relationship between job autonomy and role ambiguity (r = -.33). Therefore, a minimum amount of standardization or structure may be necessary for role clarity in order to avoid negative outcomes associated with role ambiguity (Dalton et al., 1980).

The importance of structure on the job is also illustrated in leadership theories about leader behaviors within an organization. Specifically, leaders "initiate structure" creating guidelines and procedures to facilitate the achievement of goals (Barling, Christie, & Hoption, 2011; Fleishman 1973). Measurement of these behaviors reflects performance management, standardization of procedures, and scheduling for employees (Barling et al., 2011). Compared to "consideration" (the other key leadership behavior), initiating structure is posited to have an even stronger impact on followers' performance (Barling et al., 2011; Kerr, Schriesham, Murphy, & Stogdill, 1974).

Given the value of control and structure to employees, the relationship between employee discretion and various outcomes may not be linear but rather curvilinear such that a very large amount of control results in less beneficial outcomes. Experimental research has revealed that control may not always lead to positive outcomes (Brady et al., 1958; Burger, 1989; Folkman, 1984). Likewise, there is some evidence that discretion operationalized as autonomy has nonlinear effects. For example, Chung-Yan (2010) found that job autonomy had a curvilinear relationship with job satisfaction and turnover intentions at certain levels of job complexity. Whereas the worst outcomes occurred when complexity was high and autonomy was low, the influence of autonomy leveled off indicating a weaker relationship with outcomes at higher levels of complexity (Chung-Yan, 2010). Likewise, Courtright, Gardner, McCormick & Smith (in progress) found that supervisors with high levels of job autonomy and high levels of family-to-work conflict (FWC) engaged in significantly more abusive supervisor behaviors than supervisors with low job autonomy and high levels of FWC.

In summary, theoretically it is both good and stressful to have choices as a function of discretion. Most of the empirical research has focused on the benefits of discretion; however, it is important to acknowledge that there is also value in structure. This foreshadows the possibility of competing hypotheses or curvilinear relationships.

Definition and Dimensions of Employee Discretion

Considerable research has examined the benefits of individual control or discretion over one's work environment. As noted earlier, there are a number of unique terms that have been used to refer to the general phenomena of employee discretion. The

term *discretion,* or "the freedom or authority to make decisions and choices; power to judge or act," will be used for the purposes of the current study (Webster, 1991, p. 392). Therefore, *employee discretion* is the freedom or authority an employee has over various aspects of his/her job when s/he is in that role. Thus, employee discretion is an individual-level construct describing the influence the employee has over his/her work.

There are a number of different dimensions of work over which employees can make decisions: including *what* they do, *when* they do it, *where* they do it, and *how* they do it. Thus, employee discretion can take many forms. This study will focus on three dimensions of employee discretion that all concern *the tasks they perform* when they are engaged in their work role: *when*, *where*, and *how*. Although, employees could also have discretion over *what* they do or the *criteria* on which they are evaluated, for most employees the work is defined by the job which is prescribed by the needs of the organization. As a result, employees rarely have much discretion over *what* they do and therefore on what they are evaluated. Correspondingly, the current study will not focus on these dimensions of discretion (*what*, *criterion*).

Discretion, by definition, concerns choice. Employee discretion can occur as frequently as daily such that employees can choose *when*, *where*, and/or *how* to conduct their work and that decision likely occurs daily and sometimes multiple times within the day. Thus, the inherent choice embedded in the employee discretion construct is based on the focal dimension of interest: *when*, *where*, and/or *how* work will be done. However, the provisions of discretion policies, or the formally stated guidelines dictating the nature of employee discretion, are not typically determined on a daily basis by

organizations or supervisors. Instead, they are typically decided at the time of policy development and adoption. However, sometimes the provision of employee discretion is more of a supervisor-driven practice rather than an organizational policy. In other words and a bit ironically, employee discretion is sometimes dictated at the manger's discretion (Eaton, 2003). Theoretically, this suggests that managers could change the amount of employee discretion permitted on a daily basis; however, given the resources required to do so, we argue this is very unlikely,. This is not to say that employee discretion never changes. Instead, we speculate the amount of discretion employees have is relatively stable.

Certainly some employees are not permitted any discretion over *when* (e.g., 911 operators), *where* (e.g., toll booth operators), or *how* (e.g., bus drivers that must follow a specific route) they do their work. Discretion is often limited by the nature of the work (e.g., guard a specific entrance, greet customers who enter the building) and the resources needed to conduct the work (e.g., operate a fMRI machine). Discretion can also be influenced by the supervisor or manager who oversees the work. Supervisors' beliefs and attitudes (e.g., valuing "face time," trust in an employee to work when not being watched; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007; O'Mahoney & Barley, 1999) can play a large role in the extent to which they are willing to grant employees discretion. Nevertheless, some researchers argue that some form of discretion can and should be implemented for all workers (Williams & Huang, 2011).

Discretion over *When* Employees Work

Discretion over *when* employees work is defined as *the extent to which employees are permitted to manipulate the temporal boundaries of tasks in their work role*. This is a continuous variable with the extremes ranging from no discretion over when employees can work (i.e., set hours each work day) to complete discretion over when employees can work (i.e., all work tasks can be conducted at any hour of any day of the week). Thus, employees with full discretion over *when* they work can choose when they start and stop their work tasks and may do so as often as they choose. For example, employees may begin work tasks at 8:00am and work until 2:00 pm. They may conduct other tasks (e.g., go to a doctor's appointment, pick up children from school) from 2:00pm to 4:00pm and then resume work tasks from 4:00pm to 7:00pm. Additionally, they may conduct work on any day of their choosing (e.g., weekend, holiday).

Traditionally, discretion over *when* one works has been studied and operationalized as flextime, which typically includes a "core time" (e.g., 9am – 3am) corresponding to specific hours employees are required to work at a main worksite and a "flexible time" indicating the timeframe (typically a period of hours) in which employees may decide to work at the central worksite (Cohen & Gadon, 1978; Galinsky, Bond, & Hill, 2004). Whereas a "flextime" schedule permits some flexibility in the scheduling of work, this operationalization is limited, as employees do not have full or complete discretion (i.e., do not have complete authority or freedom to decide when they conduct their work tasks).

Discretion over *when* one works could also be described at a more micro level with regard to when an employee performs certain tasks within the work role. Some authors have referred to this as task scheduling (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Both the *macro* and *micro* forms of discretion over *when* work is conducted will be examined in this study. Temporal engagement in the work role (and disengagement from a nonwork role) will be referred to as *macro when* and task sequencing will be referred to as *micro when*. That said, it is important to acknowledge that the words commonly used to study discretion (e.g., autonomy, flexibility) have colloquial meaning which complicate the ability to distinguish between *when* and *how*, when used to describe and measure one's discretion at the job and role levels.

Discretion over *Where* Employees Work

Discretion over *where* employees work is defined as *the extent to which employees are permitted to manipulate the physical boundaries of their work role.* Operationally, discretion over where employees work is the frequency with which they are permitted to work away from the main worksite. The extreme points for this continuous variable are no discretion over where they work and complete discretion over how frequently they work away from the main worksite. Thus, discretion is not over the distance from the workplace that they work (as technology often permits work to be conducted from anywhere; Kurland & Bailey, 1999), but rather over how frequently employees are permitted to choose the location of their work.[1]

[1] Some jobs require workers to be available during non-work hours or "on-call" and therefore employees are unable to travel beyond a specific distance from the work location. These arrangements differ from

In practice, working away from the main worksite has been referred to as teleworking or telecommuting: "an alternative work arrangement in which employees perform tasks elsewhere that are normally done in a primary or central workplace, for at least some portion of their work schedule, using electronic media to interact with others inside and outside the organization" (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007, p. 1525). Other conceptualizations of discretion over where work is conducted have been labeled flexplace or flexibility in workplace location (Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, & Shockley, 2013; Shockley & Allen, 2010). Similar to discretion over *when* employees work, discretion over *where* employees work is conceptualized on a continuum ranging from no discretion to complete discretion, with arrangements varying along this continuum (independent of other dimensions of discretion).

Discretion over *How* Employees Work

Discretion over how employees work can be defined as *the extent to which employees are permitted to make decisions about the methods used within their work role*. Complete discretion over how employees work is full authority over the methods used when conducting all aspects of their work, whereas no discretion would be a rigidly prescribed job whereby all tasks are heavily regulated and monitored. Discretion over *how* employees work can be conceptualized on a continuum ranging from no discretion to complete discretion, with jobs varying along this continuum.

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other forms of workplace discretion (e.g., flexplace) in that they do not require work to be performed during the time away from the office, but rather limit the control employees have over their non-work roles (e.g., how far they can travel, what activities they can perform).

Whereas complete discretion over how employees work is unlikely to occur in any job given legal and ethical guidelines, there are many jobs that vary in the extent to which employees have the ability to choose the method one prefers to use when performing work tasks. For example, sales representatives may have quite a bit of discretion over how to sell to clients (e.g., choice of wording, pricing plans, presentation tools) or instead might have extremely prescribed guidelines for how to conduct sales-related tasks. Organizational culture can also influence the extent to which employees at various levels of an organization have discretion over how they work. For example, companies such as 3M and Google offer high degrees of discretion over how work is conducted in order to facilitate positive outcomes such as creativity (Goetz, n.d.). Consistent with this objective, researchers have found that an innovative organizational culture is positively related to autonomy (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Taormina, 2009).

Discretion over *how* one works is conceptually different from the other dimensions of discretion in that it focuses on the *means* for completing job-related tasks and is therefore confined to the work domain. In other words, this dimension of discretion involves the ability to control the *means* employees use when conducting job-related *tasks*. In contrast, discretion over *when* and *where* one works enables employees to manipulate boundaries between work and nonwork domains. Consequently, no matter *when* or *where* employees perform their work tasks, discretion over *how* employees work reflects the degree of choice they have over the methods used to complete work tasks when they are in the work role.

Outcomes of Employee Discretion

Employee discretion has been related to numerous outcome variables. In order to compare the results of the current study with previous research, work (individual and organizational) and nonwork outcomes will be examined.

Previous research has demonstrated that employee discretion (or one of its various labels which will be discussed in more detail later: flextime, telework, job autonomy) is related to a number of work-related variables including job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions. *Job satisfaction* is an attitude which reflects multidimensional psychological reactions to an individual's job, with cognitive, affective, and behavioral components (Hulin, & Judge, 2003). *Burnout* is also a multidimensional response to work, consisting of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficiency (Maslach, Schafeli, & Leiter, 2001). Finally, *turnover intentions* describe some of the initial cognitions employees engage in as a part of the psychological process of preparing to leave (Janssen, deJonge, & Bakker, 1999).

Outcomes in the nonwork domain are also likely to be impacted by employee discretion. The current study will examine life satisfaction, physical health symptoms, psychological health, and work-to-nonwork conflict. *Life satisfaction* refers to the affective reactions individuals have to their lives in general. As work is typically a large component of a person's life, it is also important to measure the extent to which employee discretion impacts one's overall evaluation of their life, or life satisfaction (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1986). Empirical evidence has demonstrated that employees who experience work-role stressors experience strains such as a decrease in

physical health as well as psychological health (Griffin & Clarke, 2010). *Physical health* is often assessed by an absence of physical ailments or symptoms. *Psychological health* refers to individuals' evaluations or their lives with both cognitive and affective components (Diener, et al., 1986). Psychological health symptoms are frequently assessed relative to indicators of *reduced* health and well-being. In other words, better psychological health indicates an absence of these negative indicators. Finally, *work-to-nonwork conflict* occurs when participating in activities in the work domain interferes with activities or causes strain in the nonwork domain (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003).

Study Context

The current study examines discretion in academia, in which a large degree of discretion is possible. Like other upper level professionals, faculty members typically have a great deal of authority in deciding when, where, and how they conduct many aspects of their work tasks, particularly their research-related tasks. That said, because specific research-tasks vary by discipline and departmental norms are also likely to differ, some variability in discretion is still anticipated. More details about discretion in professional roles and academia specifically, follow.

Discretion for Professionals

Many professional jobs offer a large degree of discretion over when, where, and how work is conducted (Kossek et al., 2006; Perlow, 1998). "Professionals face unique challenges in managing work and personal life. They typically set their work schedules and do not punch a clock. Many self-manage how they [tele]work, and have high autonomy to make decisions on how to coordinate boundaries between work and home

all day long" (Kossek et al., 2006, p. 354). As Perlow (1998) describes, employees at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy are regulated at a behavioral level, with less control or decision latitude whereas higher level employees have more control over their work, and are instead regulated by their output (Ouichi & Maguire, 1975). In other words, professionals (and employees with similar job demands) are evaluated not by when, where, or how they do their work, but rather the outcomes that result from their work. Innovation is encouraged, as this may lead to better methods. However, the stakes are often higher and employees in these job domains typically work longer work days than workers in more prescribed jobs (Perlow, 1998).

Discretion in Academia

One work domain that offers a great amount of discretion is academia. In fact, discretion over *when*, *where*, and *how* work is conducted is a key element which attracts individuals to academia in the first place (Ferrara, 1998; Garrison, 2005). The Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure (1940) was developed by the American Association of University Professors as a statement on the freedoms of faculty in higher education (American Association of University Professors, n.d.; Euben, 2004). It recognizes the standard of discretion professors should have in their teaching, research, and other areas related to their academic work conducted for the common good.

> Academic freedom is essential to these purposes and applies to both teaching and research. Freedom in research is fundamental to the advancement of truth. Academic freedom in its teaching aspect is fundamental for the protection of the

> rights of the teacher[2] in teaching and of the student to freedom in learning. It carries with it duties correlative with rights. (American Association of University Professors, n.d., p. 3)

Similarly, the Occupational Information Network (O*NET, n.d.) identifies freedom to make decisions as a primary element of the work context for postsecondary teachers. Thus, employee discretion is clearly a key component of an academic job.

The three primary job duties for faculty members are research, teaching and service. Faculty members have a high degree of discretion over how they conduct most aspects of their job, with more discretion over some tasks than others. Typically, faculty members have more discretion when performing research-related tasks than when performing teaching- or service- related tasks. However, this is likely to vary substantially by discipline; a researcher requiring the use of a nuclear reactor is unlikely to be able to conduct research from anywhere at any time. Similarly, a researcher examining migration patterns of birds may only be able to do so during certain times of the year in specific locations.

Faculty are likely to have more discretion over teaching tasks (e.g., over *when* and *how* they do their work) than service related tasks. Although teaching discretion varies by institution and department, faculty members often have discretion over which courses they teach, what textbook they use, the structure and design of the course, the specific topics to include or exclude, the method and frequency of assessment, and the

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[2] The word "teacher" is defined by the American Association of University Professors as including "the investigator who is attached to an academic institution without teaching duties" (n.d., p. 3).

format of instruction (as well as which assignments or activities to include). Similarly, instructors can present topics in any order. For example, they might direct students to topics at the end of textbooks during the beginning of the semester. It seems that the only elements that an instructor has very little discretion over are the time of day/week and place of teaching (yet faculty are usually permitted to at least express preferences regarding these parameters).

In contrast, service tasks (e.g., serving on department, college, and university committees) tend to be more interdependent activities that involve other individuals as well as joint decisions; therefore, faculty members have less discretion over *when*, *where*, and *how* to perform tasks related to service responsibilities. That being said, the extent to which faculty members participate in service activities is usually weighted less importantly in their performance evaluations than the tasks they have more discretion over (research). In line with other high level professional jobs (e.g., corporate executives), the tasks which are most likely to influence a faculty member's career success also offer the most discretion. For the purposes of this study, faculty members were asked to focus on their research duties, as presumably this domain offers the most discretion over *when*, *where*, and *how* work may be conducted across disciplines. As noted earlier, some faculty members are limited in the amount of discretion they possess by discipline or field in which they work. Thus, there is likely to be variability among faculty in the extent to which they have discretion over *when*, *where*, and *how* they conduct their research-related tasks.

Empirical Studies of Employee Discretion

Current conceptualizations and operationalizations of employee discretion in the literature have been influenced by both the historical point in time in which the research occurred as well as the focal research questions. Thus, it is important to recognize the broader perspectives and time period in which the research was conducted. The research literature examining discretion over how one works (i.e., autonomy, decision latitude) developed relatively independently from the literature surrounding discretion over *when* and *where* one works (i.e., role conflict, flexibility). While research on flexibility has been influenced somewhat by research on autonomy, these studies are embedded in a broader research literature that has influenced both the conceptualization and operationalization of discretion within each study.

Job Autonomy

As noted earlier, employee discretion has been referred to in the organizational literature with various labels. Perhaps the most common label used is "job autonomy," which was initially identified in the job redesign literature as one of five important job characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). In their influential work describing the Job Characteristics Model, Hackman and Oldham (1975) proposed that job characteristics lead to critical psychological states (e.g., experienced meaningfulness) which in turn lead to desirable outcomes (e.g., motivation, job satisfaction, work performance). The authors defined autonomy as the extent to which a job affords an employee freedom, independence, and discretion over the ability to schedule work as well as in choosing the methods used to conduct the work (p. 162). This definition includes discretion over *when*

the work is done and *how* the work is done. Based on this definition, autonomous jobs allow employees to decide the order and the pace of job tasks, as well as the procedures used to accomplish job tasks (Spector, 1986). It could further be described as discretion *within* the work role.

Breaugh (1985) argued that prior conceptualizations and operationalizations of job autonomy confound discretion over *how* one works with job interdependence, or working in conjunction with others. He argued that whereas these two constructs might sometimes be empirically related, they are conceptually distinct from one another, as the construct of interdependence reflects the degree to which one's job tasks are connected with or influenced by someone else (e.g., coworker, supervisor, etc.). Thus, the extent to which employees have discretion over the methods used to conduct their work tasks may or may not relate to the extent to which they depend on others or others depend on them to complete their work. Breaugh uses the example of a bus driver who has little control over how to drive the bus or which routes to take but who also spends the majority of his/her time performing tasks independent of coworkers.

Consistent with previous conceptualizations (Cummings & Molloy, 1977; Kigundu, 1983), Breaugh (1985) conceptualized job autonomy as consisting of three facets: work method (analogous to the previously discussed *how* dimension), work scheduling (analogous in part to the previously discussed *when* dimension), and work criteria (how performance is evaluated). Breaugh (1985, 1989, 1999) presented psychometric analyses demonstrating the reliability and validity of his 1985 measure of

autonomy. Other researchers have utilized this measure of autonomy to assess these three facets of employee discretion (Ashforth & Saks, 2000; Langfred, 2004).

Most measures of job autonomy, including Hackman and Oldham's (1975) Job Diagnostic Survey, contain items about *task scheduling*, which was previously described as a micro level of discretion over *when* work is conducted. This type of discretion gives employees the authority to decide when they complete their various work tasks. Unfortunately, survey items used to assess task scheduling often leave out the word *task* and sometimes including the word *work* making it unclear if macro or micro forms of discretion over *when* work can be conducted were of interest (e.g., "How much autonomy do you have on your job; how much are you left on your own to do your own work?" Extreme response option: "Very little; I have almost no 'say' about scheduling my work; the work and the procedures are all laid out for me in detail." Hackman & Oldham, 1975; "I have control over the scheduling of my work" Breaugh, 1989).

Measures of *autonomy* using operationalizations consistent with Hackman and Oldham's (1975) definition have been associated with higher levels of job satisfaction, improved psychological health, and lower turnover intentions (Chung-Yan, 2010). Correspondingly, employee discretion is expected to be positively associated with many favorable outcomes and negatively related to many undesirable outcomes. However, given the competing advantages of structure acknowledged earlier, there may be a point in which too much discretion is not so good. If this were true, the relationship between discretion and outcomes would be curvilinear. As such, a curvilinear relationship in

which too much discretion over *how* one works yields less desirable outcomes is proposed.

Hypothesis 1.1: Discretion over <u>how</u> one works will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, and negatively related to (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict.

Hypothesis 1.2: There will be a curvilinear relationship between discretion over <u>how</u> one works and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict, such that moderate levels of discretion result in the most desirable outcomes.

Flexibility

Another term in the research literature that has been used to refer to employee discretion is "flexibility." The phrase "employee flexibility" is often used to refer to the amount of decision latitude or choice employees have in the *timing* (when) or *place* (where) where they conduct their work. The flexibility literature focuses primarily on Flexible Work Arrangements (FWAs; e.g., flextime, telework); but it has encompassed other things (e.g., cafeteria style benefits, boundary management, shiftwork, temporary work; Galinsky et al, 2004; Kossek & Michel, 2011; Society for Human Research Management Foundation, 2010).

FWAs have been described as policies that relax temporal or spatial work boundaries enabling employees to modify either the time and/or place in which work is

conducted (Rau, 2003). An underlying objective of FWAs is to offer employees some degree of control over *when* and/or *where* they work each day, with the intention of giving employees the ability to accommodate external/nonwork demands (or preferences). Thus, these arrangements are frequently implemented in order to help facilitate work-to-nonwork balance or discretion between one's roles. Correspondingly, they tend to involve discretion over one's work role (as opposed to task-related) boundaries which are temporal (*when*) and physical (*where*) and are sometimes referred to as "flextime" and "flexplace" in this literature.

In response to both organizational efforts to reduce labor and overhead fees as well as employees' desires to balance work and nonwork roles, many forms of FWAs have been developed. Kossek and Michel (2011) identified four design criteria of FWAs: (1) discretion over *when* one works; (2) discretion over *where* one works; (3) discretion over *how much* one works (e.g., amount or workload); and finally (4) discretion over the *continuity* of work (e.g., short/long-term work). Thus, FWAs appear to vary across three facets of discretion: *when*, *where*, and *how much* work is conducted. The continuity of work is a more macro-form of discretion over *when* one works, that will not be examined in this study.

Flextime is a frequently studied FWA, as many organizations offer some form of this policy (Galinsky, Bond, & Hill, 2004; Galinsky, Sakai, & Wigton, 2011). The central component of a traditional flextime arrangement is the ability for employees to choose the starting and ending times of their work days (Galinsky et al., 2011). This form of FWA typically involves some sort of a core band of time during which

employees must be present (e.g., 10am-3pm). Employees work a standard number of work hours around the core band, with the ability to choose the times they begin and end their work day (Kossek & Michel, 2011). However these arrangements do not offer full control or decision latitude over one's schedule; thus it is important to acknowledge that most operationalizations of flextime vary in the extent to which they are truly flexible.

Reviews of the effects of the flexibility literature have found that the use of flextime policies are related to higher levels of employee productivity, higher job satisfaction, lower absenteeism, decreased turnover, and lower work-to-family conflict (Baltes, 1999; Kossek & Michel, 2011). Similarly, Shockley and Allen (2007) found that availability of FWAs (specifically having the option to have a flextime schedule) was negatively related to work interference with family. Because of the numerous positive effects associated with discretion over *when* work is conducted, the following hypothesis is offered:

> *Hypothesis 2.1: Discretion over <u>when</u> one works will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, and negatively related to (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict.*

As previously discussed, job structure can also be desirable and advantageous for various reasons. Research on time banditry, or the extent to which employees will "steal time" from their employers by not performing work tasks during work hours, suggests that a lack of structured performance guidelines can lead to minimal contributions from employees on projects (Ketchen, Craighead, & Buckley, 2008; Martin, Brock, Buckley,

& Ketchin, 2010). Structure and guidelines can facilitate productivity by providing a means of accountability and justification of time spent. Ketchen and colleagues (2008, Martin et al., 2010) contend that this issue is particularly problematic in academia, as faculty have high degrees of discretion without a great deal of accountability. In other words, faculty members may not always make the best use of the discretion they have over their time and therefore (whether purposefully or inadvertently) become time bandits. Thus, a certain amount of structure may be beneficial. Therefore, a curvilinear relationship in which too much discretion over *when* one works leads to less desirable outcomes is also proposed.

> *Hypothesis 2.2: There will be a curvilinear relationship between discretion over <u>when</u> one works and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict such that moderate levels of discretion result in the most desirable outcomes.*

Flexplace (typically implemented as telework) is another FWA which is theoretically designed to offer employees discretion over *where* they work. Teleworkers are employees who spend at least some time working at the central or main worksite; in contrast, remote workers do not have a central work location. Telework arrangements vary in the frequency in which they allow employees to work away from the central worksite. In other words, organizations offering telework differ in the amount of time (typically number of days) employees may work away from the main worksite. Thus, telework arrangements are not uniform, but rather vary in intensity.

FWA research has also demonstrated many positive outcomes related to discretion over *where* one works. In their meta-analysis, Gajendran and Harrison (2007) found that telecommuting was related to beneficial outcomes such as lower levels of work-family conflict, higher job satisfaction, performance, lower turnover intentions, and lower role stress. Similarly, in their review of the FWA literature, Kossek and Michel (2011) found that telework or flexplace was related to lower work-to-family conflict, lower absenteeism, and higher organizational performance. As indicated by these and other studies, employee discretion over *where* work is conducted leads to beneficial individual and organizational outcomes. Consequently, the following hypothesis is offered:

Hypothesis 3.1: Discretion over <u>where</u> one works will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, and negatively related to (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict.

Whereas previous research supports the expectation that discretion over *where* one works results in positive individual and organizational outcomes, there may be a point in which too much discretion is problematic. Thus, a curvilinear relationship between discretion over *where* one works and outcomes is proposed:

Hypothesis 3.2: There will be a curvilinear relationship between discretion over <u>where</u> one works and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover

intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict such that moderate levels of discretion result in the most desirable outcomes.

Conceptually, flexplace is independent of flextime (Allen et al., 2012; Shockley & Allen, 2007); however, both the study and implementation of telework are often concomitant with some form of flextime. Specifically, teleworkers often have discretion over both *where* they work as well as *when* they work (i.e., the start and stop times of their work). Unfortunately, many researchers fail to distinguish between discretion over time and place in operationalizations of telework (e.g., Fitzer, 1997; Major, Verive, & Joice, 2008; Stavrou & Kilaniotis, 2010), an issue that will be discussed further in the next section.

The more control or authority an individual has over his/her environment, the better his/her outcomes (Karasek, 1979). Therefore, it is logical that employees benefit from having multiple dimensions of discretion over their work. As Shockley and Allen (2007) explain, in many ways, employees with discretion over *where* they conduct their work but no discretion over *when* they work have little more discretion than employees working at the main work site as they are still required to remain at the location where they conduct work (e.g., their home office) for the entirety of their work day. Thus, it appears that the outcomes experienced as a result of discretion over *where* one works are enhanced when one also has discretion over *when* work is conducted. Consequently, the following hypothesis contends that discretion over *where* work is conducted is likely to be enhanced by discretion over *when* work is conducted:

Hypothesis 4: There will be a significant interaction between discretion over <u>when</u> and <u>where</u> one works, such that the relationship between discretion over where and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict will be stronger for employees with higher levels of discretion over when they work. The moderated relationships include curvilinear relationships such that moderate levels of discretion over when and where result in the most desirable outcomes.

Many conceptualizations of autonomy include both discretion over *how* as well as *when* work is conducted (Breaugh,1985; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006), suggesting that having a combination of these two forms of discretion is better than having just one. It seems logical that having multiple forms of discretion is better than having one. Therefore benefits associated with discretion over *how* work is conducted are enhanced when employees also have discretion over *when* they work. Tasks vary in the amount of time they take to complete. Having control over *how* to complete specific tasks may not be as beneficial if employees do not also have the ability to control *when* tasks are conducted. In contrast, employees with high levels of discretion over both *how* and *when* work is conducted can choose both the method of completing the task that is most effective and efficient as well as the timing of the task that will accommodate other work/nonwork demands. Thus, it is proposed that discretion over *how* one works will result in even better outcomes when individuals also have a high level of discretion over *when* they work.

Thus, the benefits of discretion over *how* work is conducted depend on discretion over *when* work is conducted. While each form of discretion is likely to be preferable to no discretion, the most theoretically beneficial arrangement would allow individuals discretion over both *how* and *when* they conduct their work tasks. Therefore:

> *Hypothesis 5: There will be a significant interaction between discretion over how and when one works, such that the relationship between discretion over how and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict will be stronger for employees with higher levels of discretion over when they work. The moderated relationships include curvilinear relationships such that moderate levels of discretion over how and when result in the most desirable outcomes.*

Finally, many researchers report the combined effects of various discretion dimensions, rather than teasing them apart, perhaps reflecting the benefits of combining multiple dimensions of discretion (Gallinsky et al., 2004; Stavrou & Kilaniotis, 2010). Similarly, many organizational interventions offering employee discretion include multiple dimensions of discretion, thus underscoring the beneficial effects of offering multiple forms of discretion.

As previously discussed, the outcomes associated with discretion over *where* work is conducted are likely to be enhanced when employees also have discretion over *when* they work. Similarly, the outcomes associated with discretion over *how* work is conducted are likely to be enhanced when employees also have discretion over *when*

they work. When employees have a high level of all three forms of discretion, they not only experience the added benefits of each individual form, they are also likely to experience a heightened sense of control from the combination of the three forms of discretion. In other words, having multiple forms of discretion is expected to maximize the outcomes employees experience as a result; thus the most beneficial work arrangement is one offering all three forms of discretion.

Employees who have discretion over *how* they conduct their tasks as well as *when* they complete them can choose the methods that are most effective as well as most accommodating of their various work and nonwork demands. An example of this might be a researcher choosing which analytical software to use (based on preference, speed of use, affordability, etc.). If employees are able to choose the method of their work tasks, they are better able to plan the timing of their work day (how long tasks may take, when to schedule tasks, how many tasks can be accomplished in a given day) and therefore accommodate other roles. These benefits are enhanced even further for employees when they are allowed discretion over *where* they work (e.g., home computer vs. work computer). This may enable employees to maximize their time on work tasks, while also accommodating nonwork demands (e.g., being available for children when they come home from school, dentist appointments).

By choosing *when* and *how* work is conducted as well as the location of work, employees are able to plan both work and nonwork tasks. Therefore having all three forms of discretion allows employees to craft a work environment which is most beneficial for conducting their work minimizing conflict with nonwork demands. In

other words, the benefits of all three are maximized when they are combined. In line with this, it is hypothesized that having a high level of all three forms of discretion is even more beneficial than having one or two dimensions. Thus:

> *Hypothesis 6: There will be a three-way interaction among discretion over <u>when</u>, <u>where</u>, and <u>how</u> one works, such that the relationship between discretion over how and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict will be strongest for employees with high levels of discretion over when and where they work. The moderated relationships include curvilinear relationships such that moderate levels of discretion over when, where, and how result in the most desirable outcomes.*

Deficiency and Contamination of Employee Discretion in Previous Research

Discretion is a multi-faceted construct, yet researchers have not consistently studied it as such. Most measures assess only one or two dimensions of discretion; thus the measurement of employee discretion is frequently deficient. The ability to control when, where, and how one works are theoretically distinct from one another and therefore not necessarily related to one another. However, the three dimensions of discretion are likely to be positively related to one another as they are all theoretically associated with an employee's ability to control some aspect of his/her work environment. As a primary example of increases in discretion leading to better outcomes, teleworkers are often given discretion over *when* they work in addition to discretion over *where* they work. Similarly, discretion over *how* one works is often

combined with discretion over *when* work is conducted. Thus multiple forms of discretion are often combined in practice and are frequently confounded in research.

Many conceptualizations and operationalizations of telework confound the *when* and the *where* dimensions of discretion. In other words, researchers often fail to distinguish between discretion over time and discretion over place when defining and operationalizing telework (e.g., Fonner & Roloff, 2010; Major, Verive, & Joice, 2008; Stavrou & Kilaniotis, 2010). For example, in a study examining the influence of telework practices on dependent care, Major et al. (2008) defined teleworking as "the practice of working from anywhere at any time" (p. 65) and reported that "flexibility in daily schedule" was the most frequently selected response to the question: "How does teleworking from home help with your dependent care situation?" (p. 72). Other reasons included: assists with emergencies, ability to transport dependents to appointments, spend time on personal life, and ability to coordinate care. Thus, teleworkers attributed discretion over time as an important advantage of their telework arrangement, suggesting that perhaps discretion over *when* they work may actually be even more important than discretion over *where* they work or perhaps it is the combination that is most beneficial. Research separating these dimensions is needed in order to determine the relative value of each form of discretion.

Similarly, research on flexible work arrangements (FWAs) has also confounded discretion over *when* and *where* employees work. In a recent study examining several types of flexibility policies, Stavrou and Kilaniotis (2010) defined FWAs quite broadly. "Employee-centered FWAs are usually considered those that allow for work away from

the office and flexibility in scheduling time at work" (Stavrou & Kilaniotis, 2010, p. 542). They examined eight FWAs: shift work, overtime, weekend work, home-based work (the normal workplace is home), telework, flexi-time, part-time work, and job-sharing. Using factor analysis, the authors combined the FWAs into three "bundles:" unsocial hours, schedule flexibility, and part-time arrangements. The bundle labeled "schedule flexibility" included the FWAs: telework, home-based work, and flexi-time. This bundle was negatively related with turnover, $\beta = -.11$, $p = .02$; however, it is unclear what dimensions of discretion are contributing to that relationship.

In short, researchers have not consistently extracted discretion dimensions from FWAs in order to theoretically explain why they have positive effects. Even when researchers did attempt to differentiate discretion over time (*when*) and place (*where*), they assumed telework always included discretion over when and failed to confirm that it was not the combination of discretion over *where* and *when* (Allen et al., 2013).

Researchers have typically referred to discretion over *how* employees work as job autonomy (Breaugh, 1985; Chung-Yan, 2010; Hackman & Oldham, 1975). However, measures of job autonomy have not been limited to discretion over *how* work is conducted. Some measures have incorporated discretion over *when* work is conducted as well, confounding these two forms of discretion. *Task scheduling* is defined as the extent to which employees have control over the order or sequencing of work tasks (Breaugh, 1985). However, measures of this form of discretion have included items assessing discretion over when *work* is conducted which could be confused with when one engages in the work *role* (see Table 1). As noted earlier, task scheduling is a more

micro-form of the *when* dimension of discretion. It is bounded by the more macro-form of employee discretion over *when* they engage in the work role. However, combining task scheduling with discretion over *how* work is done under the umbrella of "autonomy" confounds relationships with outcomes, making it unclear as to what extent beneficial effects are due to discretion over *how* or *when* work is conducted.

Other studies confound discretion over *how* one works with *decision latitude*. For example, in Karasek's (1979) examination of the job-demands control model, results support the overall model; however the author notes that (for his U.S. sample) the decision latitude construct contained several aspects of control and that future research should examine the effects of the facets of discretion (e.g., time pacing, task organization). Thus, while this conceptualization and operationalization of discretion is most consistent with that of Hackman and Oldham's (1975) job autonomy, there are facets which overlap (e.g., time pacing, how) as well as facets that are unique (e.g., creativity required). To further complicate things, Chung-Yan (2010) noted that the operationalization of decision latitude in Karasek's (1979) study incorporated elements of job complexity and task variety, thus confounding demands with discretion. Chung-Yan notes that when uncontaminated measures of decision latitude are used, there is more support for the demands-control model.

Similarly, some measures of job autonomy have included other dimensions of job control that are distinct from employee control (e.g., work criteria; Breaugh, 1989). This facet of job control is distal to routine job tasks, in that it reflects the extent to which an employee (versus one's manager) has the ability to decide what his/her

work/task objectives are for a period of time and the behaviors and standards by which s/he will be evaluated. In other words, this form of discretion is not evaluated on a daily (or relatively frequently reoccurring) basis and therefore does not differentially impact individual work (and nonwork) tasks. Because this type of job control is unlikely to change on a frequent basis, it is unlikely to differentially impact outcomes resulting from the interface between an employee's work and nonwork tasks and/or roles. However, for the purposes of the current study, a measure of job criteria will be included to identify how distal measures of job control are distinct from the employee discretion dimensions of *how*, *when*, and *where*.

Other researchers have intermingled these constructs within their conceptualizations. Narayanan and Nath (1982) defined "flexitime" (which is not clearly differentiated from and therefore likely to be confused with "flextime") as a "structural intervention designed to give employees greater autonomy in scheduling their work" (p. 214) and operationalized it as flexibility in the scheduling of tasks. Thus, the construct they assessed is more closely aligned with the task sequencing facet of job autonomy than it is to the construct traditionally labeled flextime. Similarly, Li and Yeo (2011) use the terms autonomy and flexibility interchangeably in their qualitative analysis of MBA students' experiences of quality of work life and career development decisions. The authors use both of the terms flexibility and autonomy when describing workers' control over "job boundaries" (i.e., how the work is done, job design).

These and other studies suggest separate bodies of research which have developed without a thorough understanding of the full construct domain studied in

other research domains. The numerous examples of contaminated and/or deficient constructs purported to measure some form of employee discretion or authority over an aspect of his/her work in the job design, control, and work-nonwork literatures illuminate the need for clarification and distinction of the construct of employee discretion. Confounding dimensions of discretion make it unclear how much each dimension of discretion contributes to each examined outcome. From a scientific standpoint, organizational interventions extending discretion to employees (e.g., telework) need to be defined with regard to all three forms of discretion.

Domains of Outcomes

While the historical contexts in which the previous conceptualizations of discretion originated have led to contaminated measures of discretion, the nature of the two primary domains point toward a key issue: employee discretion is related to both *within* role outcomes (work) and *between* role outcomes (nonwork). Indeed, the use of each dimension of discretion appears to be within the context of specific boundary domains as well. In other words, each dimension of discretion is likely to facilitate outcomes in both the work and/or nonwork domains.

Employee discretion over *how* work is conducted falls within the work role. Because this form of discretion was conceptualized and implemented within the work role to increase employees' abilities to control their work environment to augment work-related outcomes, it is expected that this dimension of discretion is likely to be more strongly related to work-related than nonwork-related outcomes. Consequently:

Hypothesis 7: Discretion over <u>how</u> work is conducted will be more strongly related to work-related outcomes (a) job satisfaction, (b) burnout, and (c) turnover intentions than to non-work outcomes.

In contrast, discretion over *where* one works originated in the nonwork literature as a tool organizations could utilize to improve work-to-nonwork outcomes. Specifically, flexplace and telework were offered as mechanisms by which employees could spend more time *away* from the workplace but still conduct work tasks, thereby improving employees' ability to negotiate nonwork demands and facilitate work-to-nonwork balance. Therefore, it also seems logical that employee discretion over *where* work is conducted is likely to be more strongly related to nonwork-related than work-related outcomes. Specifically:

Hypothesis 8: Discretion over <u>where</u> work is conducted will be more strongly related to nonwork-related (a) life satisfaction, (b) work-to-nonwork conflict, (c) physical health symptoms, and (d) psychological health symptoms than to work-related outcomes.

Finally, the dimension of discretion over *when* one works has origins in both the job design (work) and flexibility (nonwork) literatures. Whereas items assessing discretion over *how* reflect work tasks (micro level discretion) and in contrast, discretion over *where* items measure work tasks relative to nonwork tasks (macro level discretion). As previously discussed, there are both micro and macro forms of discretion over *when* work is conducted (e.g., task scheduling/sequencing, flextime). Thus, it is less clear whether this form of discretion will have more impact on the work or nonwork domains.

The extent to which discretion over *when* work is conducted better predicts work or nonwork outcomes is likely to depend on whether the item focuses on tasks or roles. Items reflecting employees' discretion over *when* they conduct work tasks relative to other work tasks is likely to relate more strongly to work-related outcomes, whereas items assessing employees' general or broader discretion over *when* they work are more likely to relate to nonwork outcomes. Therefore:

Hypothesis 9: Micro (task) discretion over when work is conducted will be more strongly related to work-related outcomes (a) job satisfaction, (b) burnout, and (c) turnover intentions than to nonwork-related outcomes.

Hypothesis 10: Macro (role) discretion over when work is conducted will be more strongly related to nonwork-related outcomes (a) life satisfaction, (b) work-to-nonwork conflict, (c) physical health symptoms, and (d) psychological health symptoms than to work-related outcomes.

Hypothesis 11: Micro (task) discretion over when work is conducted will be more strongly related to work-related outcomes (a) job satisfaction, (b) burnout, and (c) turnover intentions than will macro (role) discretion.

Hypothesis 12: Macro (role) discretion over when work is conducted will be more strongly related to nonwork-related outcomes (a) life satisfaction, (b) work-to-nonwork conflict, (c) physical health symptoms, and (d) psychological health symptoms than will micro (task) discretion.

Perceived Discretion vs. Structural Discretion: The Importance of Perceptions

In order to have discretion, employees must first have the capacity (i.e., the job permits) and permission (i.e., the organization and the supervisor permit). Employee authority to manipulate work and nonwork boundaries to meet his/her needs has been considered a panacea in the work-nonwork literature. However, having to navigate between one's roles quickly can be a difficult transition for many individuals, leading to undesirable outcomes.

For any employee, the extent to which s/he is able to (a) take advantage of discretion policies and (b) perceive them as legitimately offering control is likely to depend, in part, on both the demands and support systems of the individual (in and outside of work). For example, individuals who have childcare demands are likely to find policies offering discretion over time as more beneficial if the timeframes around which they are able start/stop their work allow them to meet their childcare needs as well. This might be operationalized as a flextime arrangement whereby employees have the option of conducting their work around the hours when their children are in school and leaving work in time to pick up their children. This same flextime arrangement is likely to be perceived as less beneficial if the core/required work times are during the times when the employee needs to be available to pick up his/her children. In contrast, individuals who do not have children may find this policy as offering control as it allows them to manipulate their temporal work boundaries to meet other nonwork demands (e.g., doctor appointments, elder care demands).

There are also a number of work factors that can lead discretion policies to be perceived as less than discretionary. For example, an organization or department that emphasizes "face time" ("norms concerning visibility"; Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002, p .793) may hinder an individual's ability to utilize a work-from-home policy. Similarly, a colleague who schedules early meetings may diminish one's ability to utilize a flextime schedule. Other structural factors may impact employee's control over work discretion; confidentiality policies may conflict with policies designed to enhance discretion over where work is conducted (i.e., employees working with sensitive or confidential information may not be allowed to take work outside of the office).

Perceived (as opposed to espoused) discretion is a critical variable to understanding relationships with outcomes associated with policies offering discretion. As formal policies outlining discretion for faculty members are rare, the current study will examine perceptions of discretion. This will allow for the measurement of the extent to which faculty in various departments and fields experience varying degrees of discretion in the context of a job that is purported to offer large degrees of discretion.

Moderators

As previously discussed, it is possible that too much discretion may be problematic. In addition or alternatively, there may be conditions in which discretion has a weaker positive effect on various outcomes or may even have a negative effect. Thus, in addition to the direct effects of various types of employee discretion, specific conditions in which employee discretion is theoretically expected to have a stronger effect are also explored.

Role Ambiguity

Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) define role ambiguity as the "lack of the necessary information available to a given organizational position" (p. 151) resulting in coping behaviors. Role ambiguity is theoretically likely to increase an individual's dissatisfaction with said role and cause anxiety as a result. In other words, the anxiety stemming from the lack of clarity in one's work role is expected to lead to negative employee outcomes.

Role ambiguity may influence whether employee discretion is perceived as a benefit or a hindrance. For employees experiencing high levels of role ambiguity (similar to organizational newcomers), the correct behaviors or procedures are unclear, therefore having choices may serve as a stressor, rather than a mechanism of reducing anxiety. Thus, discretion may not be ideal if one does not know the right choice to make.

Hypothesis 13: Role ambiguity will moderate the relationship between discretion over <u>when</u> and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict such that employees with low role ambiguity will have more positive outcomes than employees with high role ambiguity.

Hypothesis 14: Role ambiguity will moderate the relationship between discretion over <u>where</u> and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict such that employees with low role

ambiguity will have more positive outcomes than employees with high role ambiguity.

Hypothesis 15: Role Ambiguity will moderate the relationship between discretion over <u>how</u> and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict such that employees with high locus of control will have more positive outcomes than employees with low role ambiguity.

Locus of Control

Individual differences regarding perceptions of control over outcomes are likely to impact whether or not employees benefit from having high degrees of discretion over their work. Specifically, locus of control, or the degree to which an individual perceives an outcome as dependent upon his/her behavior rather than unpredictable or due to chance, has been demonstrated to predict numerous work-related outcomes. Internal locus of control has been associated with better work and health symptoms outcomes (Ng, Sorensen, & Eby, 2006; Wang, Bowling, & Eschleman, 2010). Theoretically, individuals with an internal locus of control perceive more control over their environment, which as has been previously discussed, is beneficial for numerous reasons. In contrast, individuals with an external locus of control experience greater levels of stress because of their lack of perceived influence over events which they attribute to forces which are beyond their control such as chance or luck.

Employees with an internal locus of control are more likely to benefit from discretion over their work as they will be more likely to view their outcomes as caused by their behaviors. In other words, employees with an internal locus of control will experience more positive outcomes related to discretion over *when*, *where*, and *how* work is conducted than employees with an external locus of control as "internals" are more likely to perceive discretion as offering them choices over their work environment in order to influence outcomes. Therefore:

Hypothesis 16: Locus of control will moderate the relationship between discretion over <u>when</u> and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict such that employees with internal locus of control will experience more positive outcomes than employees with external locus of control.

Hypothesis 17: Locus of control will moderate the relationship between discretion over <u>where</u> and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict such that employees with internal locus of control will experience more positive outcomes than employees with external locus of control.

Hypothesis 18: Locus of control will moderate the relationship between discretion over <u>how</u> and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover

intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict such that employees with an internal locus of control will experience more positive outcomes than employees with an external locus of control.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) reflects the extent to which an employee feels an organization cares about his/her welfare and values his/her contributions (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). As Eisenberger and his colleagues explain, high degrees of POS "would (a) meet needs for approval, esteem, and social identity and (b) produce the expectation that superior conventional performance and extrarole behavior, carried out for the organization, will be recognized and rewarded" (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997, p. 812). Employee perceptions of organizational support have been linked to a number of work-related outcomes, such as organizational commitment, task and contextual performance, and intentions to quit (Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009).

In addition to the numerous work-related outcomes, researchers have demonstrated the buffering effects of POS in reducing adverse psychological and psychosomatic reactions to stressors (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Additionally, the favorableness (extent to which employees believe policies are beneficial) of organizational policies is more strongly related to POS when employees perceive the organization has high degrees of discretion over the policies (Eisenberger et al., 1997). In other words, employees perceive the organization as more supportive when they

approve of or are in favor of policies which they perceive the organization as initiating by choice or of its own volition.

In line with this, employee discretion is not legally mandated and is primarily the responsibility of the organization to implement. Therefore, employees are likely to experience more positive outcomes resulting from policies that are optional (such as offering employee discretion) than from policies which are required by law (e.g., FMLA). While faculty have a certain amount of employee discretion within their jobs, departmental norms can notably impact the extent to which faculty feel it is socially acceptable to take advantage of discretion afforded by their jobs. Therefore:

> *Hypothesis 19: Perceived organizational support will moderate the relationship between discretion over when and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict such that employees who perceive the organization as more supportive will experience more positive outcomes than employees with who perceive the organization as less supportive.*
>
> *Hypothesis 20: Perceived organizational support will moderate the relationship between discretion over <u>where</u> and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict such that employees who perceive the organization as more supportive will experience more positive outcomes than employees with who perceive the organization as less supportive.*

Hypothesis 21: Perceived organizational support will moderate the relationship between discretion over <u>how</u> and (a) job satisfaction, (b) life satisfaction, (c) physical health symptoms, (d) psychological health symptoms, (e) burnout, (f) turnover intentions, and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict such that employees who perceive the organization as more supportive will experience more positive outcomes than employees with who perceive the organization as less supportive.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants, Design, and Procedure

All faculty (N = 2689) at a large Carnegie Mellon Tier I Research university in the southwest were invited to participate in a survey by the Dean of Faculties office and the ADVANCE Center to assess climate and diversity related issues. One thousand two hundred twenty-three faculty provided usable responses to the survey for a 44% response rate. This sample size provides adequate power to detect small to medium effects. Faculty members were invited to participate in an anonymous[3] online survey and were also given the option to print out a hard copy of the survey and return it to the researchers through campus mail.

The sample consisted of mostly men (N = 789, 64.5%; women, N = 413, 33.8%; Transgender, N = 4; chose not to respond, N = 17). The average age of the participants was 50.69 (SD = 11.79). Finally, the sample was primarily White (N = 707). The second largest race/ethnic groups being Asian (N = 55) and Latino/a or Hispanic (N = 50).

Measures

Unless otherwise noted, all survey items had a 5-point agreement response scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree).

[3] Participants were given the option to provide identification information (i.e., University Identification Number)

Control Variables and Demographic Variables

Faculty members' levels of negative affectivity, sex, organizational tenure, tenure status, marital status, number of dependents and college were all included as control variables. These variables were included as controls as they have been previously demonstrated to mitigate the influence of various dimensions of discretion on outcomes. Demographic variables included a continuous variable for participant age. Organizational tenure was assessed on a continuous scale ranging from 1-50 years. Negative affectivity was assessed with nine items from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Thompson, 2007). The PANAS asks participants to rate how they generally feel relative to a set of words on a scale from (1) not at all to (5) extremely. Example words include "afraid" and "alert."

Tenure Status was measured as an ordinal variable (1 = Non-tenure track faculty member, 2= Tenure-track assistant professor, 3 =Tenured associate professor, 4 =Tenured professor). Marital Status assessed whether an individual was single/not married (1) or married/partnered (2). Number of dependents ranged from 0-10+. While all of the university colleges were included in the survey, only the six colleges with the highest frequency of respondents were included in the control variables (Agriculture, Science, Engineering, Education, Liberal Arts, and Government). These colleges were converted into dummy codes and included as individual control variables.

Employee Discretion

Items measuring discretion were adapted from previously existing measures of job autonomy (Breaugh, 1989) and flexibility (Kossek et al., 2006) in order to create

distinct measures of each dimension of employee discretion. Items were also revised to focus on faculty members' research responsibilities (as opposed to teaching and/or service). All items appear in the Appendix. Items from Breaugh's (1989) autonomy scale were adapted by changing the word "work" to "research tasks." For example the item, "I have control over the scheduling of my work" was changed to "I have control over the scheduling of my research tasks." To create a unified overall scale of employee discretion, Kossek et al.'s items were revised from questions to statements. For example, "To what extent does your job permit you to decide WHEN the work is done?" was modified to "I decide when to do particular research activities."

When. Six items were used to assess discretion over *when* employees work (both micro and macro forms). These items were modeled after Breaugh's (1985) task scheduling facet of job autonomy (micro) as well as Kossek et al.'s (2006) psychological job control over when one works (macro; three items each).

Where. Discretion over *where* work is conducted was assessed with three items modeled after Kossek et al.'s (2006) psychological job control over where work is conducted. An example item read "I decide where I perform research activities."

How. Three items from Breaugh's (1985) method facet of job autonomy were adapted to measure discretion over *how* work is conducted.

Criteria. Three items from Breaugh's (1985) criteria facet of job autonomy were adapted to measure faculty's discretion over work *criteria,* specifically the degree to which faculty members are able to modify the tasks on which they are evaluated.

Role Ambiguity. Three items were adapted from Rizzo et al. (1970) to measure faculty members' ambiguity regarding their role as a researcher. An example item for role ambiguity read "I know what research tasks I should devote the majority of my time to."

Work-related Outcomes. *Job satisfaction* and *turnover intentions* were each measured with three items from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983). *Burnout* was assessed using six items (Demerouti, Mostert, & Bakker, 2010).

Nonwork-related Outcomes. Four items were used to assess *work-to-nonwork conflict* (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). Five items were used to measure *life satisfaction* (Diener et al., 1986). *Negative physical health symptoms* were assessed with eight items adapted from the Physical Symptom Inventory (Spector & Jex, 1998). *Psychological health symptoms* was assessed using nine items from the Brief Symptom Inventory (Derogatis & Spencer, 1983).

Locus of Control. Three items were adapted from Levenson (1981) to assess locus of control. An example item read "I believe success depends on ability rather than luck."

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Table 2 presents the first-order Pearson correlations among study variables. All analyses of hypotheses were conducted controlling for negative affectivity, sex, tenure, tenure status, marital status, number of dependents, and college (Agriculture, Science, Engineering, Education, Liberal Arts, and Government).[4] An a priori power analysis indicated a sample size of 120-800 would be needed to detect moderate to small effects, if they exist. A total of 1223 valid responses were collected; therefore the current study had a sufficient sample size to detect small effects.

A confirmatory factor analysis using MPLUS (Muthén & Muthén, 2010) was conducted on all discretion items to verify that four dimensions of discretion underlie the discretion items, rather than a single factor (for completeness, the five factor model also included the dimension of discretion over work criteria, which is theoretically distinct from employee discretion). As many forms of employee discretion have been theorized and measured, this step will determine the extent to which employee discretion is multidimensional and that items purported to assess specific dimensions of discretion load on corresponding a priori factors.

Table 3 shows that, although the chi-square test of fit suggested significant differences between the five-factor model and the data, the fit indices suggest that the data fit the model well (χ^2 (80) = 421.94, $p < .01$, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .07, SRMR =

[4] Analyses were also conducted without control variables. Hypotheses 1.1, 2.1, and 3.1 were fully supported. No other meaningful differences were observed between analyses with and without control variables.

.04). Additionally, the data fit the 5-factor model better than a competing model whereby all items loaded onto a single factor (χ^2 (90) = 5995.87, $p < .01$, CFI = .54, RMSEA = .27, SRMR = .12, $\Delta\ \chi^2$ = 5573.93) or any of the alternative models. These results support a multidimensional conceptualization of discretion composed of up to five distinct dimensions.

A series of hierarchical regressions were used to test the unique variance accounted for in outcomes by each dimension of discretion. Table 4 summarizes the results for all of the hypotheses tested. It displays the focal variables, betas of the final step of the hierarchical regressions, and whether or not the hypothesis was supported. Hypotheses 1.1 assessed the extent to which discretion over *how* one works is related to work and nonwork outcomes. Discretion over *how* was significantly related to the work-related outcomes (a) job satisfaction (β = .08, p =.02) (e) and burnout (β = -.13, p = .00) but not (f) turnover intentions (β = -.03, *p* = .41). Contrary to expectation, discretion over *how* was not significantly related to the majority of the nonwork-related outcomes (c) physical health symptoms (β = -.05, *p* =.17); (d) psychological health symptoms (β = -.04, *p* =.12); (g) work-to-nonwork conflict (β = -.01, *p* = .78). However, it was significantly related to (b) life satisfaction (β = .14, *p* = .00). Therefore, Hypotheses 1.1a, 1.1b, and 1.1e were supported.

Hypothesis 2.1 was fully supported. Discretion over *when* one works was significantly related to (a) job satisfaction (β = .14 *p* = .00), (b) life satisfaction (β = .16, *p* = .00), (c) physical health symptoms (β = -.09, *p* =.01), (d) psychological health

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities and Zero Order Correlations for All Study Variables

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Neg Affect	1.88	0.60	*.79*											
2. Sex[a]	1.35	0.48	.17**	--										
3. Tenure	15.20	11.47	-.10**	-.20**	--									
4. Tenure Status	2.73	1.18	.04	-.23**	.51**	--								
5. Marital Status	0.86	0.35	-.04	-.14**	.04	.09**	--							
6. # of Depend	1.39	1.31	-.12**	-.21**	-.02	.07*	.29**	--						
7. Agriculture	0.16	0.36	.07*	-.09**	.06	.11**	.01	.05	--					
8. Science	0.10	0.30	-.02	-.07*	.07*	.01	.02	.00	-.14*	--				
9. Engineering	0.15	0.36	-.08*	-.19**	-.08*	.04	.03	.14**	-.18**	-.14**	--			
10. Education	0.07	0.25	-0.04	.14**	-.06	-.07*	.00	-.04	-.11**	-.09**	-.11**	--		
11. Liberal Arts	0.19	0.39	.15**	.08**	.06	.06	.03	-.08*	-.20**	-.16**	-.20**	-.13**	--	
12. Government	0.01	0.12	-.02	.00	-.04	-.01	-.01	-.04	-.05	-.04	-.05	-.03	-.06*	--

Table 2 Continued

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13. How	4.60	0.66	-.08*	-.04	.03	.10**	.08*	.01	-.01	.07*	-.02	.04	.02	.06
14. When Micro	4.46	0.75	-.17**	-.12**	.04	.06	.05	.08*	.02	.06	.04	.07*	-.02	.05
15. When Macro	4.38	0.86	-.14**	-.05	.04	.06	.04	.05	.00	.09**	.00	.07*	.01	.03
16. When Combo	4.42	0.74	-.17**	-.09**	.05	.07*	.05	.07	.02	.08*	.02	.07*	-.01	.03
17. Where	4.04	1.04	-.13**	-.06	.03	.04	.07*	.02	-.12**	.02	-.01	.05	.12**	.09**
18. Criteria	3.79	0.89	-.13**	-.14**	.08*	.09**	.05	.05	.05	.10**	.02	.00	-.08*	-.02
19. Role Ambig	2.30	0.70	.14**	.18**	-.13**	-.24**	-.07	-.11**	-.04	-.01	-.06	.02	-.03	-.02
20. LOC	3.76	0.71	-.20**	-.07*	.08*	-.03	.06	.06	.04	-.02	.05	.10**	-.08*	-.07*
21. POS	3.32	0.87	-.29**	-.01	-.07*	-.14**	-.02	-.03	-.04	-.01	-.01	.05	-.04	.04
22. Job Sat	3.45	1.09	-.44**	-.07*	-.00	-.15**	-.05	.02	-.01	.01	.04	.04	-.16**	.03
23. Life Sat	3.46	0.85	-.39**	-.08**	.07*	.02	.11**	.06	.00	-.03	-.02	.05	.01	.03
24. Phys Health	2.71	0.97	.44**	.19**	-.10**	-.02	-.00	-.10**	.05	.00	-.11**	.01	.03	-.01
25. Psyc Health	1.62	0.63	.68**	.10**	-.12**	.03	-.09**	-.09**	.04	-.02	-.08*	-.01	.10**	-.01
26. Burnout	2.40	0.73	.49**	.10**	-.12**	.03	-.01	-.05	.08**	.01	.00	-.05	-.02	-.05
27. Turnover Int	2.53	1.15	.34**	.04	-.16**	.07*	.03	.02	.00	.02	-.01	-.07*	.14**	.01
28. WNW Confl	3.43	0.96	.40**	.13**	-.19**	.03	.03	.03	.09**	-.04	.04	-.02	.01	.01

Table 2 Continued

	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
13. How	*.95*															
14. When Micro	.66**	*.91*														
15. When Macro	.51**	.69**	*.96*													
16. When Combo	.63**	.91**	.93**	.93												
17. Where	.41**	.46**	.51**	.54**	.95											
18. Criteria	.39**	.45**	.43**	.47**	.36**	.72										
19. Role Ambig	-.20**	-.20**	-.20**	-.22**	-.13**	-.16**	.83									
20. LOC	.10**	.14**	.08*	.11**	.07*	.09**	-.07*	.50								
21. POS	.09**	.15**	.11**	.14**	.10**	.13**	.01	.06*	.92							
22. Job Sat	.12**	.22**	.19**	.22**	.14**	.28**	.02	.10**	.55**	.94						
23. Life Sat	.19**	.24**	.22**	.25**	.24**	.27**	-.14**	.13**	.36**	.54**	.89					
24. Phys Health	-.08*	-.17**	-.12**	-.18**	-.17**	-.15**	.17**	-.15**	-.17**	-.24**	-.29**	.81				
25. Psyc Health	-.10**	-.19**	-.15**	-.18**	-.11**	-.13**	.15**	-.20**	-.29**	-.40**	-.43**	.52**	.87			
26. Burnout	-.18**	-.23**	-.27**	-.27**	-.23**	-.20**	.20**	-.18**	-.28**	-.42**	-.43**	.41**	.54**	.78		
27. Turnover Int	-0.1	-.12**	-.14**	-.14**	-.12**	-.19**	-.02	-.11**	-.39**	-.69**	-.42**	.22**	.36**	.42**	.87	
28. WNW Confl	-0.0	-.11**	-.19**	-.17**	-.13**	-.15**	.07*	-.13**	-.19**	-.31**	-.35**	.42**	.43**	.51**	.35**	.88

Note. **p < .01, *p < .05; N = 1223; Reliabilities are on diagonal where appropriate. Neg Affect = Negative Affectivity; Sex: 1 = Male, 2 = Female; Tenure = time (in years) as a faculty member at A&M; Tenure Status: 1 = Non-tenure track faculty member, 2= Tenure-track assistant professor, 3 =Tenured associate professor, 4 =Tenured professor; Marital Status: 1 = Single/Not Married, 2 = Married/Partnered; # of Depend = Number of Dependents; Agriculture, Science, Engineering, Education, Liberal Arts, and Government are all dummy variables; How = Discretion over how; When Micro = Micro discretion over when (task); When Macro = Macro discretion over when (role); When Mean = Composite of Micro and Macro When; Where = Discretion over how; Criteria = Discretion over job criteria; Job Sat = Job Satisfaction; = Life Sat = Life Satisfaction; Phys Health = Physical Health Symptoms; Psyc Health = Psychological Health symptoms; Turnover Int = Turnover Intentions; WNW Confl = Work-to-nonwork Conflict.

Table 3
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Structure	χ^2	$\Delta\ \chi^2$	*df*	Δ *df*	CFI	SRMR	RMSEA	RMSEA confidence interval
One factor	5995.87*		90		0.54	0.12	0.27	(.26, .27)
Two factors	5608.55*	387.32	89	1	0.57	0.11	0.26	(.26, .27)
Four factors	1643.79*	4352.08	84	6	0.88	0.08	0.14	(.14, .15)
Five factors	421.94*	5573.93	80	10	0.97	0.04	0.07	(.06, .08)

Note. *$p < .01$. Five factor model = (1) where, (2) micro when, (3) macro when, (4) how, (5) criteria; Four factor model = (1) where, (2) when (micro and macro), (3) how, (4) criteria; Two factor model = (1) where, when (micro and macro), how, (2) criteria; One factor model = (1) where, when (micro), when (macro), how, criteria.

Table 4
Results of Hypotheses

H	Discretion	**Linear Relationships**	Results	Hypothesis Supported?
1.1	How	(a) Job Satisfaction	β =.08, *p* = .02	**H1.1a Supported**
	How	(b) Life Satisfaction	β =.14, *p* = .00	**H1.1b Supported**
	How	(c) Physical Health	β = -.05, *p* = .17	H1.1c Not Supported
	How	(d) Psychological Health	β = -.04, *p* = .12	H1.1d Not Supported
	How	(e) Burnout	β = -.13, *p* = .00	**H1.1e Supported**
	How	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = -.03, *p* = .41	H1.1f Not Supported
	How	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = -.01, *p* = .78	H1.1g Not Supported
2.1	When	(a) Job Satisfaction	β =.14, *p* = .00	**H2.1a Supported**
	When	(b) Life Satisfaction	β =.16, *p* = .00	**H2.1b Supported**
	When	(c) Physical Health	β = -.09, *p* = .01	**H2.1c Supported**
	When	(d) Psychological Health	β = -.06, *p* = .03	**H2.1d Supported**
	When	(e) Burnout	β = -.20, *p* = .00	**H2.1e Supported**
	When	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = -.10, *p* = .00	**H2.1f Supported**
	When	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = -.12, *p* = .00	**H2.1g Supported**
3.1	Where	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = .08, *p* = .02	**H3.1a Supported**
	Where	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = .16, *p* = .00	**H3.1b Supported**
	Where	(c) Physical Health	β = -.09, *p* = .01	**H3.1c Supported**
	Where	(d) Psychological Health	β = -.01, *p* = .84	H3.1d Not Supported
	Where	(e) Burnout	β = -.16 *p* = .00	**H3.1e Supported**
	Where	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = -.08, *p* = .02	**H3.1f Supported**
	Where	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = -.07, *p* = .04	**H3.1g Supported**

Table 4 Continued

H	Discretion	**Curvilinear Relationships**	Results	Hypothesis Supported?
1.2	How	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = -.22; *p* = .34	H1.2a Not supported
	How	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = -.15; *p* = .51	H1.2b Not supported
	How	(c) Physical Health	β = .01; *p* = .98	H1.2c Not supported
	How	(d) Psychological Health	β = .34; *p* = .07	H1.2d Not supported
	How	(e) Burnout	β = -.27; *p* =.22	H1.2e Not supported
	How	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = .17; *p* = .47	H1.2f Not supported
	How	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = -.03; *p* = .90	H1.2g Not supported
2.2	When	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = -.11; *p* = .62	H2.2a Not supported
	When	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = .20, *p* = .39	H2.2b Not supported
	When	(c) Physical Health	β = -.04; *p* = .86	H2.2c Not supported
	When	(d) Psychological Health	β = -.04; *p* = .82	H2.2d Not supported
	When	(e) Burnout	β = -.27; p = .21	H2.2e Not supported
	When	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = -.05; *p* = .82	H2.2f Not supported
	When	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = .13; *p* = .56	H2.2g Not supported
3.2	Where	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = -.23; *p* = .27	H3.2a Not supported
	Where	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = .34; *p* = .12	H3.2b Not supported
	Where	(c) Physical Health	β = .02; *p* = .92	H3.2c Not supported
	Where	(d) Psychological Health	β = .00; *p* = .99	H3.2d Not supported
	Where	(e) Burnout	β = .02; *p* = .93	H3.2e Not supported
	Where	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = .47; *p* = .03	**H3.2f Supported**
	Where	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = -.10; *p* = .65	H3.2g Not supported

Table 4 Continued

H	Discretion	**Interactions**	Results	Hypothesis Supported?
4	When X Where	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = .03; *p* = .38	H4a Not supported
	When X Where	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = .05; *p* = .22	H4b Not supported
	When X Where	(c) Physical Health	β = -.02; *p* = .61	H4c Not supported
	When X Where	(d) Psychological Health	β = .00; *p* = .89	H4d Not supported
	When X Where	(e) Burnout	β = .01; *p* = .82	H4e Not supported
	When X Where	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = -.04; *p* = .36	H4f Not supported
	When X Where	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = .03; *p* = .46	H4g Not supported
5	How X When	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = .01; *p* = .81	H5a Not supported
	How X When	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = .03; *p* = .53	H5b Not supported
	How X When	(c) Physical Health	β = -.01; *p* = .74	H5c Not supported
	How X When	(d) Psychological Health	β = -.02; *p* = .49	H5d Not supported
	How X When	(e) Burnout	β = -.06; *p* = .15	H5e Not supported
	How X When	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = -.08; *p* = .07	H5f Not supported
	How X When	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = -.02; *p* = .63	H5g Not supported
6	3 way	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = -.04; *p* = .34	H6a Not supported
	3 way	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = -.01; *p* = .89	H6b Not supported
	3 way	(c) Physical Health	β = -.03; *p* = .50	H6c Not supported
	3 way	(d) Psychological Health	β = .02; *p* = .56	H6d Not supported
	3 way	(e) Burnout	β = .04; *p* = .30	H6e Not supported
	3 way	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = .06; *p* = .12	H6f Not supported
	3 way	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = .04; *p* = .26	H6g Not supported

Table 4 Continued

H	Discretion	**Domain Tests**	Results	Hypothesis Supported?
7		How→Work (than NW) Outcomes		H7 Mixed Support
8		Where→Nonwork (than Work) Outcomes		H8 Not Supported
9		Micro When→Work (than NW) Outcomes		H9 Mixed Support
10		Macro When→Nonwork		H10 Not Supported
11		Micro When>Macro When→Work		H11 Not supported
12		Macro When>Micro When→Nonwork		H12 Not supported
H	Discretion	**Moderators**	Results	Hypothesis Supported?
13	When X RA	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = -.06, *p* = .06	H13a Not Supported
	When X RA	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = -.04, *p* = .29	H13b Not supported
	When X RA	(c) Physical Health	β = -.02, *p* = .61	H13c Not supported
	When X RA	(d) Psychological health	β = .02, *p* = .50	H13d Not supported
	When X RA	(e) Burnout	β = .03, *p* = .06	H13e Not supported
	When X RA	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = .08, *p* = .02	**H13f Supported**
	When X RA	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = .02, *p* = .20	H13g Not supported
14	Where X RA	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = -.07, *p* = .05	**H14a Supported**
	Where X RA	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = -.08, *p* = .02	**H14b Supported**
	Where X RA	(c) Physical Health	β = .02, *p* = .64	H14c Not supported
	Where X RA	(d) Psychological Health	β = .04, *p* = .15	H14d Not supported
	Where X RA	(e) Burnout	β = .01, *p* =.69	H14e Not supported
	Where X RA	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = .10, *p* = .00	**H14f Supported**
	Where X RA	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = .09, *p* = .01	**H14g Supported**
15	How X RA	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = -.04, *p* =.22	H15a Not supported
	How X RA	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = -.02, *p* =.53	H15b Not supported
	How X RA	(c) Physical Health	β = -.00, *p* = .92	H15c Not supported
	How X RA	(d) Psychological Health	β = .02, *p* = .57	H15d Not supported

Table 4 Continued

H	Discretion	**Moderators**	Results	Hypothesis Supported?
15	How X RA	(e) Burnout	β = -.02, *p* = .56	H15e Not supported
	How X RA	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = .06, *p* = .08	H15f Not Supported
	How X RA	(g) Work-to-nonwork conflict	β = .04, *p* = .24	H15g Not Supported
16	When X LOC	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = .00, *p* = .96	H16a Not supported
	When X LOC	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = .02, *p* = .47	H16b Not supported
	When X LOC	(c) Physical Health	β = .01, *p* = .76	H16c Not supported
	When X LOC	(d) Psychological health	β = .01, *p* = .84	H16d Not supported
	When X LOC	(e) Burnout	β = -.01, *p* = .82	H16e Not supported
	When X LOC	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = -.04, *p* = .28	H16f Not Supported
	When X LOC	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = -.01, *p* = .85	H16g Not supported
17	Where X LOC	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = .02, *p* = .56	H17a Not supported
	Where X LOC	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = .05, *p* = .16	H17b Not supported
	Where X LOC	(c) Physical Health	β = -.00, *p* = .98	H17c Not supported
	Where X LOC	(d) Psychological health	β = -.06, *p* = .03	**H17d Supported**
	Where X LOC	(e) Burnout	β = -.00, *p* = .98	H17e Not supported
	Where X LOC	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = -.01, *p* = .79	H17f Not supported
	Where X LOC	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = .01, *p* = .85	H17g Not supported
18	How X LOC	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = .01, *p* = .84	H18a Not supported
	How X LOC	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = -.02, *p* = .51	H18b Not supported
	How X LOC	(c) Physical Health	β = -.00, *p* = .94	H18c Not supported
	How X LOC	(d) Psychological health	β = .03, *p* = .35	H18d Not supported
	How X LOC	(e) Burnout	β = -.01, *p* = .84	H18e Not supported

Table 4 Continued

H	Discretion	**Moderators**	Results	Hypothesis Supported?
18	How X LOC	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = -.02, *p* = .64	H18f Not supported
	How X LOC	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = .02, *p* = .62	H18g Not supported
19	When X POS	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = .01, *p* = .75	H19a Not supported
	When X POS	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = -.03, *p* = .37	H19b Not supported
	When X POS	(c) Physical Health	β = -.01, *p* = .82	H19c Not supported
	When X POS	(d) Psychological Health	β = .01, *p* = .60	H19d Not supported
	When X POS	(e) Burnout	β = .01, *p* = .73	H19e Not supported
	When X POS	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = -.05, *p* = .14	H19f Not supported
	When X POS	(g) Work-to-nonwork conflict	β = .03, *p* = .34	H19g Not supported
20	Where X POS	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = -.04, *p* = .17	H20a Not supported
	Where X POS	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = -.07, *p* = .04	H20b Not Supported
	Where X POS	(c) Physical Health	β = .02, *p* = .60	H20c Not supported
	Where X POS	(d) Psychological Health	β = .04, *p* = .18	H20d Not supported
	Where X POS	(e) Burnout	β = .01, *p* = .74	H20e Not supported
	Where X POS	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = .01, *p* = .70	H20f Not supported
	Where X POS	(g) Work-to-nonwork conflict	β = .03, *p* = .38	H20g Not supported
21	How X POS	(a) Job Satisfaction	β = -.02, *p* = .61	H21a Not supported
	How X POS	(b) Life Satisfaction	β = -.05, *p* = .12	H21b Not supported
	How X POS	(c) Physical Health	β = .02, *p* = .65	H21c Not supported
	How X POS	(d) Psychological Health	β = .04, *p* = .21	H21d Not supported
	How X POS	(e) Burnout	β = .03, *p* = .30	H21e Not supported
	How X POS	(f) Turnover Intentions	β = -.01, *p* = .85	H21f Not supported
	How X POS	(g) Work-to-nonwork Conflict	β = .04, *p* = .23	H21g Not supported

Note. All results were computed controlling for Negative Affectivity, Sex, Organizational Tenure, Tenure Status, Marital Status, Number of Dependents, College of Agriculture, College of Science, College of Engineering, College of Education, College of Liberal Arts, & Bush School. LOC = Locus of Control; POS = Perceived Organizational Support. Physical Health = Physical Health Symptoms; Psychological Health = Psychological Health Symptoms.

Table 5

Regression Estimates Hierarchical Regression Analysis: When

	Job Satisfaction		Life Satisfaction		Physical Health		Psychological Health	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Constant	5.28*	4.37*	4.05*	3.16*	1.25*	1.78*	.43*	.67*
Controls								
Negative Affect	-.72*	-.69*	-.54*	-.51*	.63*	.61*	.71*	.70*
Sex	-.03	-.03	.01	.01	.28*	.28*	-.03	-.03
Org Tenure	.01	.00	.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01*	-.01*
Tenure Status	-.08*	-.09*	.06	.05	.03	.03	.02	.02
Marital Status	-.17	-.17	.20*	.19*	.06	.06	-.10	-.09
# of Dependents	.02	.01	.04	.04	-.03	-.03	-.01	-.01
Agriculture	-.11	-.14	.02	.00	-.04	-.03	.07	.07
Science	-.10	-.15	-.03	-.08	-.03	.00	.04	.06
Engineering	-.07	-.10	-.07	-.11	-.23*	-.22*	-.05	-.04
Education	-.10	-.17	.07	.01	-.10	-.06	.05	.06
Liberal Arts	-.40*	-.43*	.12	.09	-.04	-.02	.05	.06
Bush School	.50	.38	.21	.10	.09	.16	.10	.12
When		.20*		.20*		.12*		-.05*
Adj. R^2	.21	.22	.16	.19	.22	.22	.48	.48
Δ *Adj.* R^2		.01		.03		.01		.00

Table 5 Continued

	Burnout		Turnover Intentions		Work-to-nonwork Conflict	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Constant	1.44	2.24*	1.34*	2.05*	1.92*	2.63*
Controls						
Negative Aff	.54*	.51*	.54*	.51*	.59*	.56*
Sex	.07	.07	.03	.03	.18*	.18*
Org Tenure	-.01*	-.01*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*
Tenure Status	.04	.04	.05	.05	.09*	.09*
Marital Status	.04	.04	.18	.19	.12	.13
# of Dependents	.10	-.02	.02	.03	.04	.04
Agriculture	.10	.13	.19	.21	.15	.17
Science	.05	.11	.26	.30	-.06	-.01
Engineering	.04	.07	.18	.20	.18	.20*
Education	-.07	-.01	-.16	-.11	.07	.12
Liberal Arts	-.15	-.11	.44*	.47*	-08	-.06
Bush School	-.32	-.21	-.03	.05	.13	.22
When		.20*		-.16*		-.16*
Adj. R^2	.24	.27	.15	.16	.19	.21
Δ Adj. R^2		.04		.03		.01

Note. *p ≤ .05 Estimates are unstandardized regression estimates. Neg Aff = Negative Affectivity; Sex: 1 = Male, 2 = Female; Tenure = time (in years) as a faculty member at A&M; Tenure Status: 1 = Non-tenure track faculty member, 2= Tenure-track assistant professor, 3 =Tenured associate professor, 4 =Tenured professor; Marital Status: 1 = Single/Not Married, 2 = Married/Partnered; # of Depend = Number of Dependents; Agriculture: College of Agriculture = 1, Others = 0; Science: College of Science = 1, Others = 0; Engineering: College of Engineering = 1, Others = 0; Education: College of Education = 1, Others = 0; Liberal Arts: College of Liberal Arts =1, Others = 0; Bush School: Bush School = 1, Others = 0; How = Discretion over how; When Micro = Micro discretion over when (task); When Macro = Macro discretion over when (role); When Mean = Composite of Micro and Macro When; Where = Discretion over how; Criteria = Discretion over job criteria; Job Sat = Job Satisfaction; = Life Sat = Life Satisfaction; Physical Health = Physical Health Symptoms ; Psychological Health= Psychological Health Symptoms; Turnover Int = Turnover Intentions; Work-to-nonwork Conflict = Work-to-nonwork Conflict.

symptoms (β = -.06, *p* =.03), (e) burnout (β = -.20, *p* =.00), (f) turnover intentions (β = -.10, *p* = .00) and (g) work-to-nonwork conflict (β = -.12, *p* = .00; see Table 5).

Hypothesis 3.1 was fully supported with one exception. Discretion over *where* one works was significantly related to (a) job satisfaction (β = .08, *p* =.02), (b) life satisfaction (β = .16, *p* =.00), (c) physical health symptoms (β = -.09, *p* =.01 (e) burnout (β = -.16, *p* =.00), (f) turnover intentions (β = -.08, *p* =.02) and work-to-nonwork conflict (β = -.07, *p* = .04). However, discretion over *where* one works was not significantly related to (d) psychological health symptoms (β = -.01, *p* =.84). Therefore Hypotheses 3.1a-c and 3.1e-f were supported.

Hypotheses 1.2-3.2 proposed curvilinear relationships between each form of discretion and the work and nonwork outcomes. However, only Hypothesis 3.2f was supported. As Figure 2 shows, discretion over *where* had a significant curvilinear relationship with turnover intentions, such that the impact of turnover intentions levels at higher levels of discretion over *where*. The rest of Hypotheses 1.2-3.2 were not supported (see Table 4).

Interaction analyses were conducted by standardizing all variables (i.e., z scores; Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003). The first step of the regression analyses were conducted by regressing the control variables onto the dependent variable. Second, a dimension of discretion (either how or where) was included in the regression analyses.

As when was conceptualized as the moderator in the interaction analyses between dimensions of discretion, it was included in the third step. Finally, the

interaction term between the two dimensions of discretion was entered in the final step (see Tables 6 and 7). For the interaction among all three dimensions, each dimension

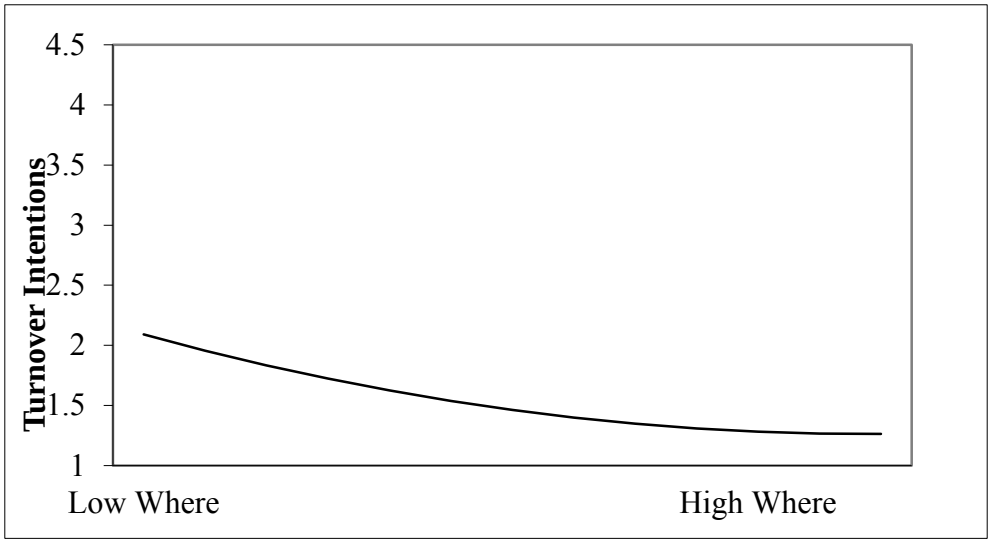

Figure 2. *Curvilinear Effect of Discretion over Where Work Is Conducted on Turnover Intentions*.

was entered into a separate step (Steps 2, 3, and 4), followed by the interaction terms between how and when, followed by where and when (Steps 5 and 6), and then finally the interaction term among all three dimensions entered last (Step 7). Simple slopes analyses were conducted in addition to plotting the interactions (Aiken & West, 1991).

Hypotheses 4 a-g proposed an interaction between discretion over *how* and *when* work is conducted. Hypotheses 5 a-g proposed an interaction between discretion over

when and *where* work is conducted. Finally, Hypotheses 6a-g proposed a 3-way interaction among all three dimensions of discretion. However, none of these hypotheses were supported.

To determine whether the dimensions of discretion were more strongly related to the work or nonwork domain, Hypotheses 7-10 proposed each form of discretion would be more strongly related to outcomes in the domain from which the form of discretion originates. In support of Hypothesis 7, discretion over *how* one works was significantly related to two work outcomes (job satisfaction and burnout) while only significantly related to one nonwork outcome (life satisfaction, see Table 8). Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was partially supported. Discretion over *where* work is conducted was significantly related to almost all work and nonwork outcomes (except psychological health symptoms, see Table 7). While two of the strongest relationships were with nonwork-related outcomes (life satisfaction, physical health), the weakest relationships were also with nonwork-related outcomes. Additionally, the relationship between *where* and burnout was the same strength as the relationship between *where* and life satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 8 was not supported. With the exception of life satisfaction, micro *when* (task) was more strongly related to most work-related outcomes than nonwork outcomes. However, the relationships between macro (role) *when* were relatively stronger with work-related outcomes than nonwork-related outcomes. Therefore, there was partial support for Hypothesis 9, whereas Hypothesis 10 was not supported.

Table 6

Regression Estimates Hierarchical Regression Analysis: How and When

	Job Satisfaction				Life Satisfaction				Physical Symptoms				Psychological Health			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Constant	5.28*	5.31*	5.26*	5.23*	4.03*	4.07*	4.03*	4.02*	1.28*	1.26*	1.29*	1.29*	.44*	.44*	.45*	.45*
Controls																
Negative Aff	-.73*	-.71*	-.69*	-.69*	-.54*	-.52*	-.50*	-.50*	.63*	.62*	.61*	.60*	.71*	.70*	.70*	.69*
Sex	-.03	-.04	-.03	-.03	.01	.01	.01	.01	.27*	.28*	.28*	.28*	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.03
Org Tenure	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01*	-.01*	-.01*	-.01*
Tenure Status	-.08*	-.09*	-.09*	-.09*	.06	.04	.05	.05	.03	.03	.03	.03	.02	.03	.02	.03
Marital Status	-.17	-.19	-.18	-.18	.21*	.19*	.19*	.19*	.06	.07	.06	.06	-.10	-.10	-.10	-.10
# of Dependents	.02	.02	.01	.01	.04	.04	.05	.04	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
Agriculture	-.11	-.12	-.14	-.14	.02	.02	.19	.04	-.05	-.05	-.03	-.03	.06	.07	.07	.07
Science	-.10	-.12	-.15	-.15	-.03	-.06	.04	.00	-.04	-.02	-.01	-.01	.04	.05	.06	.06
Engineering	-.07	-.07	-.10	-.10	-.08	-.08	.00	-.09	-.25*	-.25*	-.22*	-.23*	-.05	-.05	-.04	-.04
Education	-.10	-.12	-.17	-.17	.07	.04	-.09	-.11	-.10	-.09	-.07	-.07	.05	.05	.06	.06
Liberal Arts	-.40*	-.42*	-.43*	-.43*	.12	.10	-.10	.01	-.05	-.05	-.03	-.03	.05	.05	.06	.06
Bush School	.49	.45	.38	.38	.20	.14	.01	.09	.09	.11	.15	.16	.10	.11	.13	.13
How		.08*	-.01	-.00		.12*	.05	.07		-.05	.01	.01		-.03	-.01	-.01
When			.15*	.15*			.11*	.12*			-.10*	-.10*			-.04	-.04
How X When				.01				.02				-.01				-.01
Adj. R^2	.18	.20	.21	.20	.17	.18	.20	.20	.22	.22	.23	.23	.46	.46	.47	.47
Δ Adj. R^2			.01	.01	.00		.02	.01	.00		.00	.01	.00		. 00	.00

Table 6 Continued

	Burnout				Turnover Intentions				Work-to-nonwork Conflict			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Constant	1.30*	1.27*	1.31*	1.33*	1.35*	1.34*	1.39*	1.42*	1.89*	1.89*	1.94*	1.95*
Controls												
Negative Aff	.56*	.55*	.52*	.52*	.54*	.53*	.51*	.50*	.60*	.59*	.56*	.56*
Sex	.05	.07	.07	.07	.02	.03	.03	.03	.18*	.18*	.18*	.18*
Org Tenure	-.01*	-.01*	-.01*	-.01*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*
Tenure Status	.04	.06*	.05*	.05	.05	.05	.05	.66	.09*	.10*	.09*	.09*
Marital Status	.02	.04	.02	.03	.20	.20	.19	.21	.12	.12	.10	.11
# of Dependents	-.02	-.02	-.02	-.02	.02	.02	.03	.02	.04	.04	.05	.05
Agriculture	.10	.10	.13	-.13	.19	.19	.21	.21	.15	.15	.18	.18
Science	.05	.08	.11	.11	.26	.27	.30*	.30*	-.05	-.05	-.02	-.02
Engineering	.06	.06	.09	.09	.17	.17	.20	.21	.18	.18	.22*	.22*
Education	-.07	-.04	-.00	-.00	-.16	-.15	-.11	-.11	.08	.08	.13	.13
Liberal Arts	-.14*	-.12	-.11	-.11	.45*	.45*	.47*	.47*	-.08	-.08	-.06	-.06
Bush School	-.31	-.26	-.20	-.19	-.04	-.02	.05	.06	.13	.14	.22	.22
How		-.10	-.01	-.03		-.04	.07	.02		-.01	.11*	.10*
When			-.14*	-.15*			-.16*	-.17*			-.18*	-.18*
How X When				-.02				-.05				-.01
Adj. R^2	.24	.26	.28	.28	.15	.15	.16	.16	.19	.19	.21	.21
Δ Adj. R^2		.02	.02	.00		.00	.01	.00		.00	.02	.00

Note. *p ≤ .05 Estimates are unstandardized regression estimates. Neg Aff = Negative Affectivity; Sex: 1 = Male, 2 = Female; Tenure = time (in years) as a faculty member at A&M; Tenure Status: 1 = Non-tenure track faculty member, 2= Tenure-track assistant professor, 3 =Tenured associate professor, 4 =Tenured professor; Marital Status: 1 = Single/Not Married, 2 = Married/Partnered; # of Depend = Number of Dependents; Agriculture: College of Agriculture = 1, Others = 0; Science: College of Science = 1, Others = 0; Engineering: College of Engineering = 1, Others = 0; Education: College of Education = 1, Others = 0; Liberal Arts: College of Liberal Arts =1, Others = 0; Bush School: Bush School = 1, Others = 0; How = Discretion over how; When Micro = Micro discretion over when (task); When Macro = Macro discretion over when (role); When Mean = Composite of Micro and Macro When; Where = Discretion over how; Criteria = Discretion over job criteria; Job Sat = Job Satisfaction; = Life Sat = Life Satisfaction; Phys Health = Physical Health Symptoms ; Psychological Health = Psychological health symptoms; Turnover Int = Turnover Intentions; WNW Confl = Work-to-nonwork Conflict.

Table 7

Regression Estimates Hierarchical Regression Analysis: When and Where

	Job Satisfaction				Life Satisfaction				Physical Symptoms				Psychological Health			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Constant	5.36*	5.35*	5.34*	5.33*	4.01*	3.99*	3.98*	3.97*	1.26*	1.27*	1.27*	1.28*	.43*	.43*	.43*	.43*
Controls																
Negative Aff	-.72*	-.70*	-.68*	-.68*	-.54*	-.51*	-.49*	-.49*	.64*	.62*	.61*	.61*	-.71*	-.71*	-.70*	-.70*
Sex	-.05	-.05	-.05	-.05	.01	.01	.01	.01	.27*	.27*	.27*	.27*	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.03
Org Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
Tenure Status	-.10*	-.10*	-.10*	-.11*	.05	.05	.05	.05	.03	.03	.03	.03	-.02	-.02	-.03	-.02
Marital Status	-.22	-.23*	-.23*	-.23*	.22*	.20*	.20*	.20*	.05	.06	.06	.06	-.10	-.09	-.09	-.09
# of Dependents	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.04	.04	.04	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.01
Agriculture	-.13	-.11	-.17	-.15	.01	.05	.02	.02	-.05	-.08	-.06	-.06	.07	.07	.08	.08
Science	-.11	-.12	-.17	-.16	-.03	-.04	-.08	-.07	-.02	-.02	-.00	-.00	.05	.05	.06	.06
Engineering	-.08	-.08	-.12	-.12	-.10	-.10	-.12	-.12	-.23	-.23	-.21	-.21	-.04	-.04	-.03	-.03
Education	-.13	-.15	-.19	-.19	.06	.02	.01	.01	-.09	-.07	-.05	-.05	.05	.05	.07	.07
Liberal Arts	-.42*	-.45*	-.45*	-.45*	.11	.07	.06	.06	-.03	-.00	.01	.00	.06	.06	.07	.07
Bush School	.48	.42	.36	.35	.21	.11	.07	.06	.10	.16	.19	.19	.10	.10	.12	.12
Where		.09*	.01	.01		.13*	.08*	.08*		-.09*	-.05	-.05		-.01	.02	.02
When			.14*	.17*			.10*	.12*			-.06	-.07			-.05*	-.05*
When X Where				.03				.04				-.02				.00
Adj. R^2	.20	.20	.22	.22	.16	.18	.19	.19	.21	.22	.22	.22	.47	.47	.48	.48
Δ Adj. R^2		.01	.01	.00		.02	.01	.00		.01	.00	.00		. 00	.00	.00

Table 7 Continued

	Burnout				Turnover Intentions				Work-to-nonwork Conflict			
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4
Constant	1.37*	1.39*	1.39*	1.39*	1.32*	1.33*	1.33*	1.34*	1.98*	1.99*	2.00*	2.01*
Controls												
Negative Aff	.54*	.52*	.50*	.49*	.53*	.51*	.49*	.49*	.58*	.57*	.55*	.55*
Sex	.05	.06	.07	.07	.03	.03	.03	.03	.17*	.17*	.17*	.17*
Org Tenure	-.01*	-.01*	-.01*	-.01*	-.03*	-.03*	-.03*	-.03*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*	-.02*
Tenure Status	.03	.04	.04	.04	.07	.07	.07	.07	.08*	.09*	.09*	.09*
Marital Status	-.02	.04	.04	.04	.21	.23	.23	.23	.11	.11	.12	.11
# of Dependents	-.03	-.02	-.02	-.02	.02	.02	.02	.02	.03	.05	.04	.04
Agriculture	.11	.08	.12	.12	.24	.21	.24	.24	.16	.14	.17	.17
Science	.04	.05	.09	.09	.30	.30	.34*	.34*	-.05	-.05	-.01	-.01
Engineering	.07	.08	.10	.10	.21	.22	.24	.24	.20*	.20*	.22*	.23*
Education	-.05	-.02	.02	.02	-.13	-.10	-.07	-.07	.11	.12	.15	.15
Liberal Arts	-.14*	-.10	-.09	-.09	.49	.52*	.52*	.52*	-.07	-.05	-.04	-.04
Bush School	-.32	-.23	-.19	-.19	-.01	.06	.09	.10	.13	.18	.22	.23
Where		-.12*	-.06*	.06*		-.09*	-.04	-.04		-.07*	-.01	-.01
When			-.12*	.12*			-.10*	-.11*			-.11*	-.13*
When X Where				.01				-.01				-.03
Adj. R^2	.24	.26	.28	.28	.17	.17	.17	.17	.19	.20	.20	.20
Δ Adj. R^2		.01	.01	.00		.01	.01	.00		.01	.01	.00

Note. *p ≤ .05 Estimates are unstandardized regression estimates. Neg Aff = Negative Affectivity; Sex: 1 = Male, 2 = Female; Tenure = time (in years) as a faculty member at A&M; Tenure Status: 1 = Non-tenure track faculty member, 2= Tenure-track assistant professor, 3 =Tenured associate professor, 4 =Tenured professor; Marital Status: 1 = Single/Not Married, 2 = Married/Partnered; # of Depend = Number of Dependents; Agriculture: College of Agriculture = 1, Others = 0; Science: College of Science = 1, Others = 0; Engineering: College of Engineering = 1, Others = 0; Education: College of Education = 1, Others = 0; Liberal Arts: College of Liberal Arts =1, Others = 0; Bush School: Bush School = 1, Others = 0; How = Discretion over how; When Micro = Micro discretion over when (task); When Macro = Macro discretion over when (role); When Mean = Composite of Micro and Macro When; Where = Discretion over how; Criteria = Discretion over job criteria; Job Sat = Job Satisfaction; = Life Sat = Life Satisfaction; Phys Health = Physical Health Symptoms ; Psychological Health = Psychological health symptoms; Int = Turnover Intentions; WNW Confl = Work-to-nonwork Conflict.

Table 8

Relationship between Employee Discretion Dimensions and Work and Nonwork Outcomes

Outcomes	Within		Between	
	How	**When (Micro)**	**When (Macro)**	**Where**
Work Outcomes				
Job Satisfaction	.08*	.13*	.12*	.08*
Burnout	-.14*	-.17*	-.19*	-.16*
Turnover Intentions	-.03	-.07*	-.10*	-.08*
Nonwork Outcomes				
Life Satisfaction	.14*	.16*	.15*	.16*
Physical Health	-.05	-.11*	-.07*	-.09*
Psychological health	-.04	-.07*	-.05	-0.01
Work-to-nonwork Conflict	-.01	-.08*	-.14*	-.07*

Note. *$p \leq .05$. Shaded cells are for dimensions of discretion originating *within* the work domain; those not shaded are for discretion which has implications for both work and nonwork domains (and is therefore *between* domains). Cells above the bold line reflect work outcomes whereas those below reflect nonwork outcomes. Physical Health = Physical Health Symptoms. All results were computed controlling for Negative Affectivity, Sex, Organizational Tenure, Tenure Status, Marital Status, Number of Dependents, and College.

Hypotheses 11 and 12 proposed that micro (task) *when* would be more strongly related to work outcomes than would macro (role) *when*, whereas macro (role) *when* would be more strongly related to nonwork outcomes than would micro (task) *when*. Neither hypothesis was supported as both forms of discretion were related to work and nonwork outcomes in relatively equal magnitudes (see Table 8). These results indicate that discretion over *how* one performs his/her work tasks was significantly related to work-related outcomes. Discretion facilitating the management of work and nonwork roles was related to both work and nonwork outcomes.

Hypotheses 13-15 proposed that role ambiguity would moderate the relationship between discretion (over *when*, *where*, and *how* respectively) and both work and nonwork outcomes. In support of 13f, there was a significant interaction between discretion over *when* one works and role ambiguity on turnover intentions ($\beta = .08$, $p = .02$). As shown in Figure 3, individuals with high levels of discretion over *when* they conduct their work and high levels of role ambiguity have higher turnover intentions than individuals with high levels of discretion over *when* they work and low levels of role ambiguity. A simple slopes analysis revealed that the slope of the line depicting the relationship between discretion over *when* and turnover intentions for high levels of role ambiguity (top line in Figure 3) was not significant (simple slope = .14, $t = 1.34$, $\underline{p} = .18$), indicating that there is not a significant difference in turnover intentions between individuals with high and low levels of discretion over *when* they work when they have a

high level of role ambiguity. Given the slopes for medium and low levels of role ambiguity are even smaller, this conclusion applies to those groups as well.

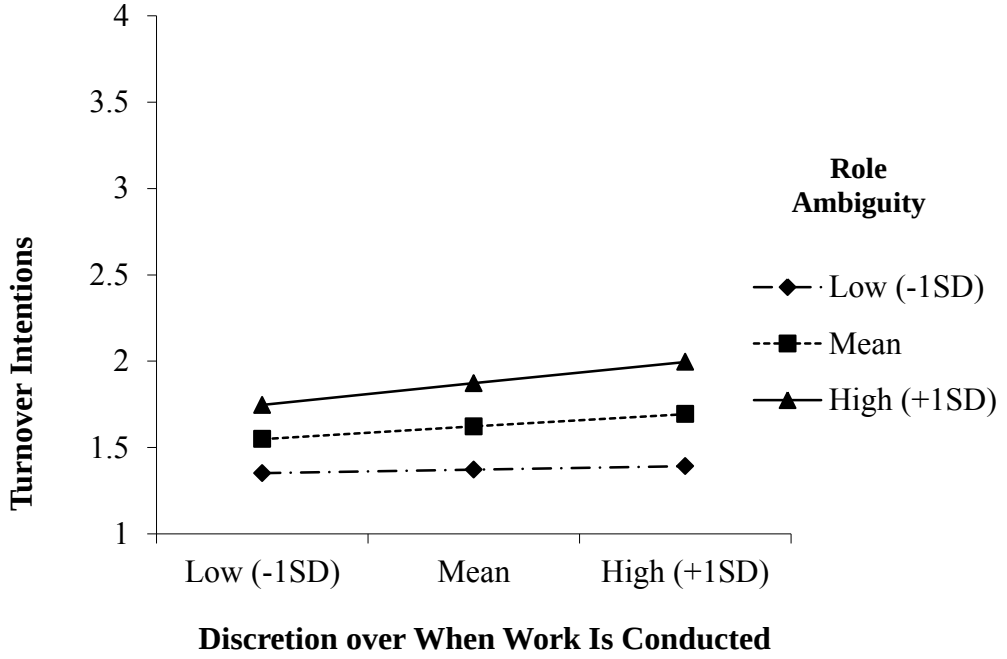

Figure 3. *Interaction between Discretion over When Work Is Conducted and Role Ambiguity on Turnover Intentions*.

Hypotheses 14a, 14b, 14f, and 14g were also supported. Discretion over *where* significantly interacted with role ambiguity to predict job satisfaction (β = -.07, *p* =.05), life satisfaction (β = -.08, *p* = .02), turnover intentions (β = .10, *p* = .00), and work-to-

nonwork conflict (β = .09, p = .01). As shown in Figure 4, faculty members with high levels of discretion over *where* they work who also had high levels of role ambiguity had lower levels of job satisfaction than those with low levels of ambiguity. A simple slopes analysis revealed that the slope of the line depicting the relationship between discretion over *where* work is conducted and job satisfaction for individuals with a high level of role ambiguity was not significant (simple slope = -.12, t = 1.58, p = .11), indicating there is not a significant difference in job satisfaction for individuals with high and low

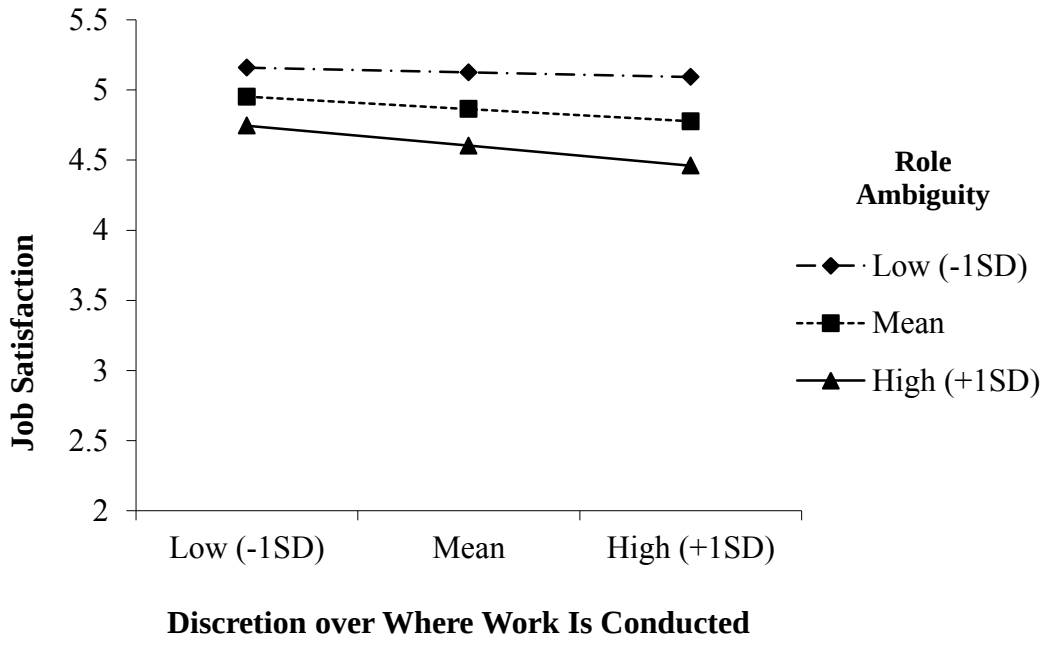

Figure 4. *Interaction between Discretion over Where Work Is Conducted and Role Ambiguity on Job Satisfaction*.

levels of discretion over where they work when they have a high level of role ambiguity. Given the slopes for medium and low levels of role ambiguity are even smaller, this conclusion applies to those groups as well.

Similarly, Figure 5 shows that faculty members with high levels of discretion over *where* they work and high levels of role ambiguity had lower levels of life satisfaction than those with a low level of role ambiguity. A simple slopes analysis revealed that the slope of the line depicting the relationship between discretion over *where* work is conducted and life satisfaction for individuals with high levels of role ambiguity was not significant (simple slope = -.07, t = -.98, p = .33), indicating that there

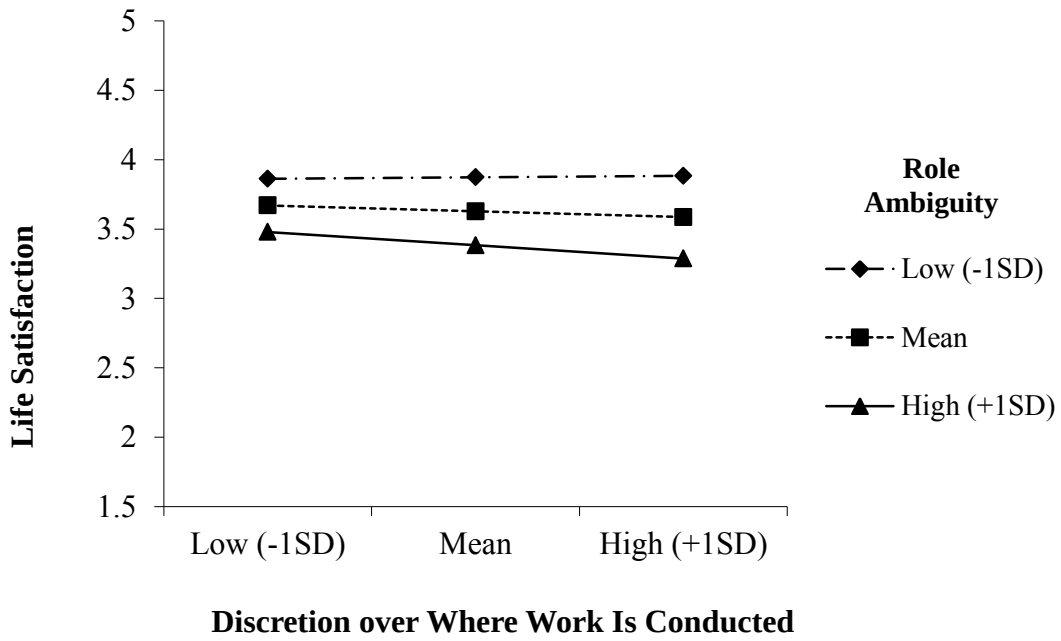

Figure 5. *Interaction between Discretion over Where Work Is Conducted and Role Ambiguity on Life Satisfaction*.

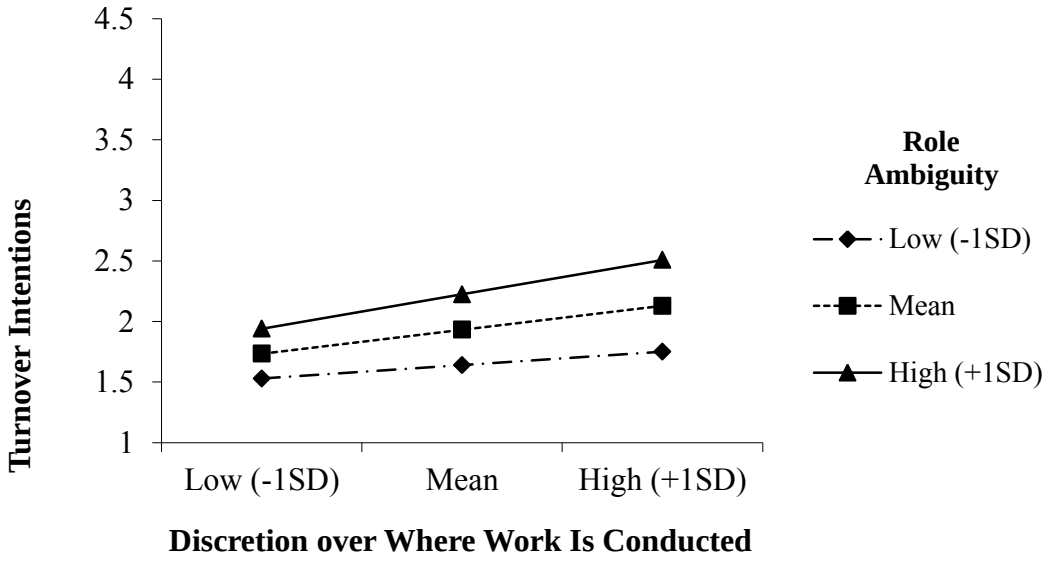

Figure 6. *Interaction between Discretion over Where Work Is Conducted and Role Ambiguity on Turnover Intentions*.

is not a significant difference in life satisfaction for individuals with high and low levels of discretion over where they work with a high level of role ambiguity. Given the slopes of the lines for medium and low levels of role ambiguity were even less steep, this conclusion applies to those groups as well.

In support of Hypothesis 14f, Figure 6 shows that faculty members with high levels discretion over *where* work is conducted and a high level of role ambiguity had greater intentions to turnover than individuals with a low level of role ambiguity. A simple slopes analysis revealed that the slope of the line depicting the relationship between discretion over *where* work is conducted and turnover intentions for individuals with a high level of role ambiguity was significant (simple slope = .24, $t = 2.31$, $\underline{p} = .02$),

indicating there is a significant difference in turnover intentions for individuals with high and low levels of discretion over *where* they work when they have a high level of role ambiguity. The slope of the line for individuals with a low level of role ambiguity was not significant (simple slope = .07, $t = 1.02$, $p = .31$), indicating, there is not a significant difference in turnover intentions for individuals with high and low levels of discretion over *where* they work when they have a low level of role ambiguity. By extension, this conclusion applies to the medium level of role ambiguity as well.

Similarly, Figure 7 shows that faculty with a high level of discretion over *where* they conduct their work and a high level of role ambiguity had the highest levels of work-to-nonwork conflict. In contrast, those with a low level of discretion over *where* work is conducted as well as a low level of role ambiguity had lower levels of work-to-nonwork conflict. The simple slopes analysis revealed that the simple slope of the regression of discretion over *where* onto role ambiguity for high levels of role ambiguity was significant for work-to-nonwork conflict (simple slope = .19, $t = 2.51$, $p = .01$). At low levels of role ambiguity, the relationship between role ambiguity and discretion over *where* was nonsignificant (simple slope = .06, $t = 1.24$, $p = .22$). Therefore, consistent with the hypothesis, the relationship between discretion over *where* and role ambiguity was stronger and positive for individuals with high levels of role ambiguity. Alternatively, this relationship was much weaker and nonsignificant for low levels of role amibiguity..

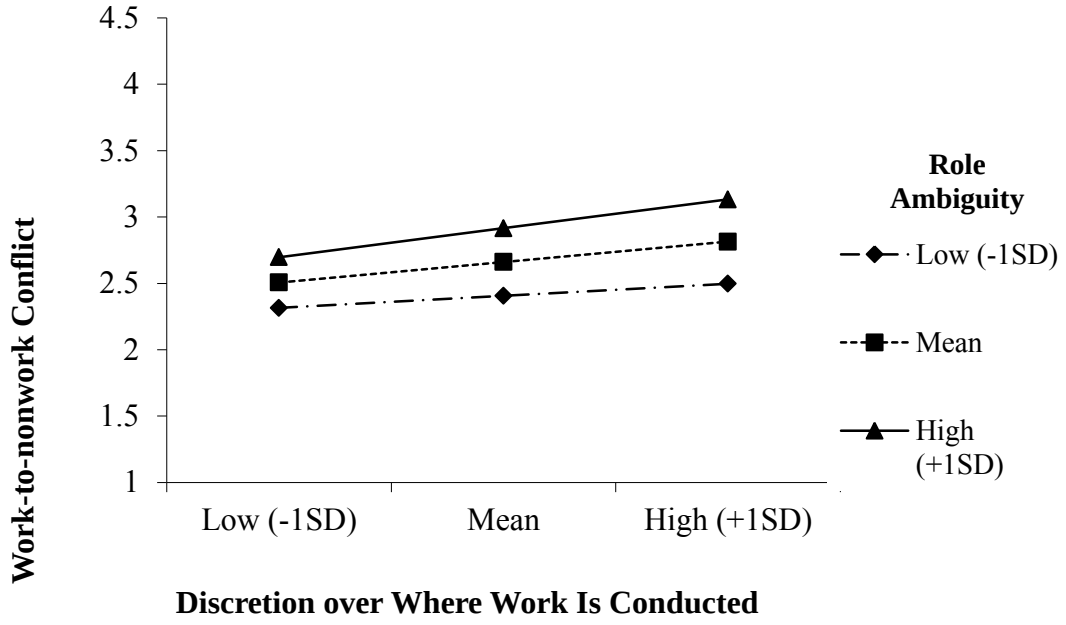

Figure 7. *Interaction between Where Work Is Conducted and Role Ambiguity on Turnover Intentions*.

These results suggest that discretion over *where* work is conducted is most beneficial to individuals who have a low level of role ambiguity. In other words, an understanding of one's role within the organization may be necessary in order for discretion over *where* to be advantageous to employees.

Hypotheses 16-18 proposed that locus of control would moderate the relationship between discretion (over when, where, and how respectively) and work and nonwork outcomes. There was a significant interaction between discretion over *where* and locus of control on psychological health symptoms ($\beta = -.06$, $p = .03$). As shown in Figure 8, faculty members with discretion over *where* who also had more internal locus of control

(higher levels indicate internal) had less psychological health symptoms than those with a more external locus of control. Additionally, those with the most are individuals with an external locus of control and low levels of discretion over *where* they can conduct their work. Therefore, Hypothesis 17d was supported. The simple slopes analysis revealed that the simple slope of the regression of discretion over *where* onto locus of control for high levels of locus of control was significant (simple slope = -.19, t = -7.02, p = .00). At low levels of locus of control, the relationship between locus of control and discretion over *where* was nonsignifcant (simple slope = -.13, t = -7.37, p = .00).

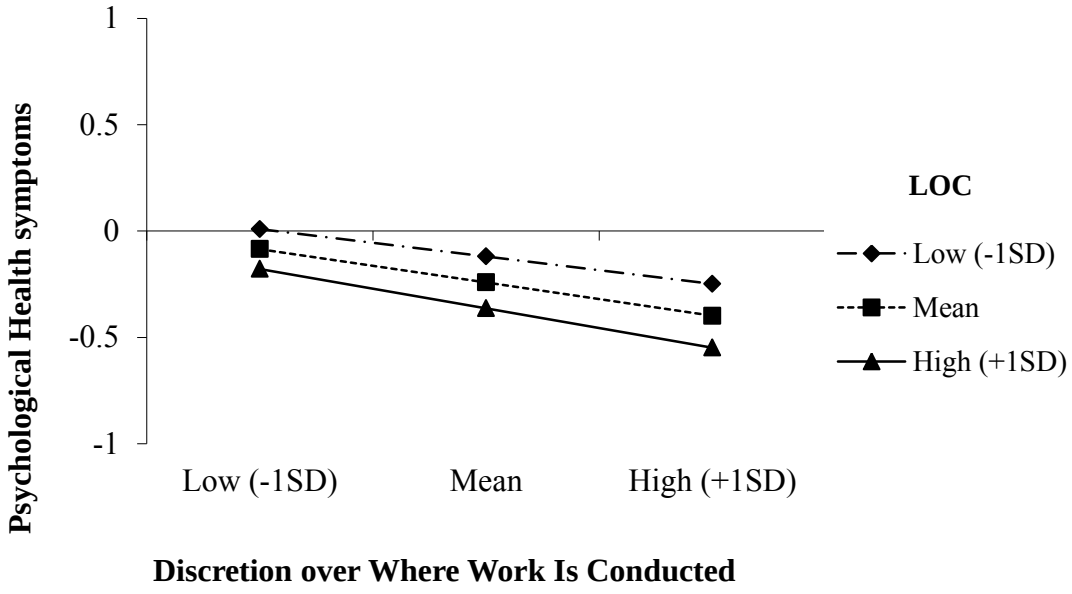

Figure 8. *Interaction between Where Work Is Conducted and Locus of Control on Psychological Health Symptoms*.

Finally, Hypotheses 19-21 proposed that perceived organizational support would moderate the relationship between discretion (over *when*, *where*, and *how* respectively) and work and nonwork outcomes. However, Hypotheses 19-21 were not supported. The results indicated there was a significant interaction between discretion over *where* work is conducted and perceived organizational support on life satisfaction; (H20b, $\beta = -.07$, $p = .04$). However as Figure 9 shows, the interaction was not in the expected direction. Individuals with a low level of discretion over *where* and medium levels of perceived organizational support had the highest levels of life satisfaction. Therefore H20b was not supported.

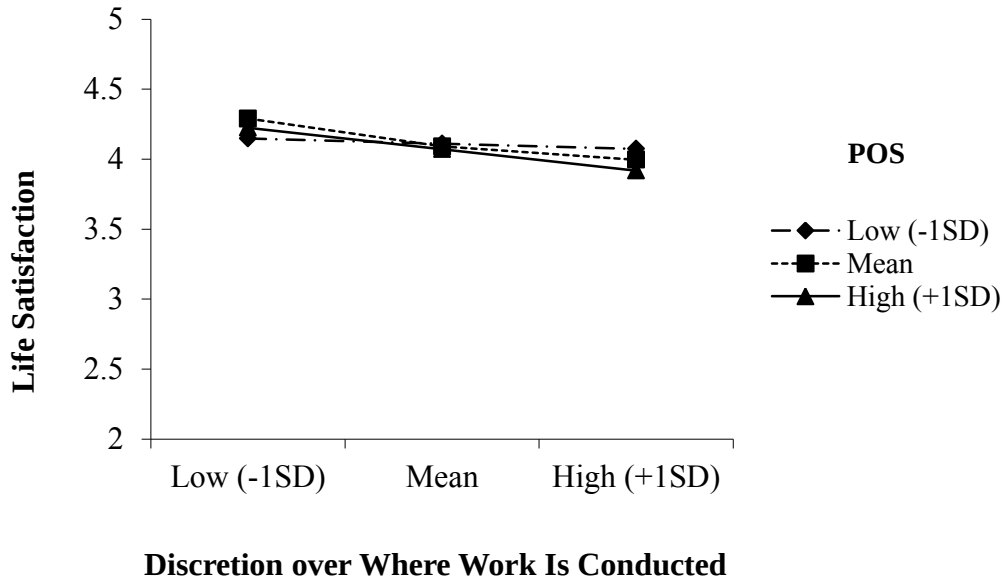

Figure 9. *Interaction between Where Work Is Conducted and Perceived Organizational Support on Life Satisfaction*.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The concept of employee discretion has been examined in multiple research literatures using various labels including "autonomy" and "flexibility." Conceptually it can be argued that employee discretion is a multidimensional construct as there are various aspects with which employees can be given authority over including *when*, *where*, and *how* they conduct their work. However, the construct has not been consistently operationalized within and across the various literatures. Frequently only one dimension of discretion has been examined, providing a narrow and deficient view of discretion and its relationship with various outcomes. Sometimes, discretion is operationalized as a mixture of more than one dimension (e.g., Stavrou & Kilaniotis, 2010), confounding the influence of discretion dimensions. Further, items measuring discretion over *when* work is completed are sometimes ambiguous making it difficult to know if the respondent should indicate a macro (role) or micro (task) level of discretion.

The purpose of the current study was to examine the influence of three dimensions of employee discretion on work and nonwork-related outcomes in order to determine the unique relationship of each dimension. To do so, distinct items for each dimension were identified and administered to a sample of 1223 faculty members. The resulting data allowed for an examination of the discriminant validity of the three dimensions of discretion, the relative contribution of each dimension to various outcomes and the potential synergistic effects of more than one type of discretion.

Dimensions of Discretion

A confirmatory factor analysis revealed that a model whereby each dimension of employee discretion (micro and macro *when*, *where*, and *how*) loaded onto separate dimensions (or factors) provided the best fit to the data and therefore was most appropriate. Additionally, the range of relationships between these dimensions, while strong (r = .41-.69), does not suggest that they are measuring the same construct, but rather that they assess related information. This provides initial support for a multidimensional conceptualization of employee discretion. Further, as described in more detail later, the discretion dimensions related differently to various outcomes, providing further evidence for their discriminant validity.

This study focused on three primary dimensions of employee discretion which were differentiated from discretion over the criteria used to evaluate faculty members. For an even more comprehensive examination of employee discretion, researchers may want to examine additional dimensions of workplace discretion such as continuity of work (cf. Kossek & Michel, 2011), a more macro-form of discretion over *when* one works relative to his/her entire lifetime, decision latitude, and discretion over others.

Effects of Employee Discretion on Work and Nonwork-related Outcomes

A number of hypotheses were put forth regarding how the various dimensions of discretion were expected to relate to a set of work-related outcomes (job satisfaction, burnout, and turnover intentions) and nonwork-related outcomes (life satisfaction, work-to-nonwork conflict, physical health symptoms, and psychological health symptoms).

Discretion over *when* and *where* had significant main effects on almost all of the work and nonwork outcomes, even after controlling for the effects of negative affectivity and multiple demographic variables. Specifically, discretion over *when* was positively related to job satisfaction and life satisfaction as well as negatively related to psychological health symptoms, burnout, turnover intentions, and work-to-nonwork conflict. Similarly, discretion over *where* was positively related to job satisfaction and life satisfaction as well as negatively related to physical health symptoms, burnout, turnover intentions, and work-to-nonwork conflict (but not significantly related to psychological health symptoms).

Additionally, with two exceptions (macro when and psychological health symptoms), both micro and macro discretion over *when* were significantly related to all work and nonwork outcomes. While it was hypothesized that micro when would be more strongly related to work-related outcomes whereas macro *when* would be more strongly related to nonwork-related outcomes, both dimensions of *when* had relationships with outcomes of relatively similar magnitude. These results suggest that discretion over *where* and *when* (both micro and macro) are robust predictors of work and nonwork outcomes.

Finally, discretion over *how* one works was significantly related to job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and burnout. However, discretion over *how* was not significantly related to the majority of nonwork outcomes or turnover intentions. These results are consistent with findings from previous studies indicating that employee

discretion is important for a number of work and nonwork outcomes (e.g., Allen et al., 2013; Baltes et al., 1999; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Additionally, each form of discretion was related to at least two work-related outcomes (job satisfaction and burnout) and at least one nonwork-related outcome (life satisfaction).

Some jobs lend themselves to one form of discretion over another (e.g., *when* vs *where*). Organizations may not be able to offer all of these forms of discretion to all employees. However, these results suggest that organizations offering some form of employee discretion can experience positive results, no matter which form of employee discretion they are able to offer.

Linear vs. Curvilinear Effects

With one exception, employee discretion did not have curvilinear effects on work or nonwork outcomes. Discretion over *where* had a slight curvilinear relationship with turnover intentions such that as the level of discretion over *where* increased, faculty turnover intentions leveled off. Therefore it appears that discretion over *where* one works may only have a beneficial relationship with turnover intentions up to a point. However, this was the only curvilinear hypothesis that was supported and numerous were tested, so it should be interpreted cautiously (i.e., the significant results may capitalize on chance). Overall, these results suggest that discretion typically has a linear relationship with outcomes. In other words, more employee discretion leads to corresponding increases in positive outcomes (e.g., life satisfaction) and decreases in negative outcomes (e.g., turnover intentions). These results contradict previous findings

that discretion over how work is conducted (i.e., job autonomy) has a curvilinear relationship with work and nonwork outcomes (Chung-Yan, 2010).

Multiplicative Effects

Given the multidimensional conceptualization of employee discretion, another objective of this study was to explore the extent to which one dimension of discretion enhanced the effects of another dimension of discretion on work and nonwork outcomes. Contrary to expectation, there were no significant interactions between any of the forms of discretion. It appears that the effects are not multiplicative. In other words, the effect of one form of discretion does not depend on another form of discretion. One form does not seem to enhance nor does it seem to hinder the effects of another form. For example, employees who have discretion over *where* they work may also benefit from having discretion over *when* they work. However, the gains acquired from having discretion over *where* work is conducted do not appear to depend on discretion over *when* work is conducted (i.e., employees benefit from discretion over *where* they work absent of discretion over *when* they work).

Work-related vs. Nonwork-related Outcomes

Additionally, the current study compared outcomes within and between dimensions to examine the extent to which each dimension of employee discretion is unique and the relative value of each to various work and nonwork-related outcomes. There was mixed support for the hypothesis that task discretion over *when* (micro) would be more strongly related to work-related outcomes than nonwork-related

outcomes. Discretion over *when* (micro and macro) and *where* had small to medium relationships with almost all outcomes in both domains (with the exception of *where* with psychological health). Thus the benefits of employee discretion extend beyond the work domain and appear to have a positive relationship on nonwork-related outcomes including life satisfaction, work-to-nonwork conflict, physical health symptoms, and psychological health.

These results are consistent with previous findings that discretion is considered beneficial because perceptions of control over one's environment lead to beneficial outcomes (Averill, 1973; Ganster & Fusilier, 1989; Spector, 1986). However, this underlying theoretical explanation for the value of discretion was not directly examined. In the future, researchers may want to include an assessment of perceived control over *when*, *where*, and *how* one works in order to determine the extent to which this is the underlying psychological mechanism that explains why discretion is related to various outcomes.

Moderators of the Employee Discretion-Outcome Relationships

To examine the extent to which these effects differ across individuals and context, three moderators were examined (role ambiguity, locus of control, and perceived organizational support). However, role ambiguity was the only meaningful moderator of the relationship between employee discretion and select work and nonwork-related outcomes. Specifically, role ambiguity moderated the relationship between two of the three dimensions of discretion (*when* and *where*) and turnover

intentions as well as the relationship between discretion over *where* and both work (job satisfaction and turnover intentions) and nonwork outcomes (life satisfaction and work-to-nonwork conflict). In all cases, role ambiguity mitigates the beneficial relationship between employee discretion on work and nonwork-related outcomes. In other words, individuals who experience more role ambiguity within their organizations do not appear to benefit as much from this latitude. Perhaps they are not likely to fully comprehend how to take advantage of the discretion given to them.

Role ambiguity was significantly related to organizational tenure (r = - .13, p = .00). Employees with less organizational experience appear to have less clarity in their job roles and therefore benefit less from employee discretion policies. Organizational newcomers may not be able to identify the best method to complete their tasks, need guidance on how to prioritize multiple and competing demands, and/or may appreciate the ability to work with others at the main work site rather than working on novel tasks in isolation away from others.

Locus of control and perceived organizational support did not have meaningful interactions with employee discretion in the prediction of outcomes. It appears that employees with an internal locus of control as well as employees with an external locus of control benefit equally from discretion over *when*, *where*, or *how* to conduct their work. Additionally, benefits of discretion do not appear to depend upon perceptions of organizational support. Thus, perceiving the organization as supportive is not a contingency for discretion to be beneficial, nor does it enhance its effects.

Another moderator that would be particularly relevant is the extent to which individuals prefer to integrate or segment their work roles (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000). Researchers have demonstrated this individual difference as a moderator of employee discretion use, particularly discretion over *when* and *where* work is conducted (Shockley & Allen, 2010). Future research examining the multiple forms of discretion would benefit from also examining preference for segmentation.

Theoretical Implications

The results of the current study begin to clarify and unify the research surrounding employee discretion. First, the confounding of the three dimensions of discretion was identified (and illustrated in Table 1) in a sample of studies examining employee discretion. Second, key conceptual distinctions were made, survey items were selected and modified to facilitate an examination of the dimensions empirical distinctions and unique and potentially synergistic influences on various work and nonwork-related outcomes. Finally, areas where future research concerning discretion over *how*, *when*, and *where* employees work were identified.

Ideally, going forward, researchers will recognize and acknowledge the multidimensional nature of employee discretion, clearly articulate which dimensions are of theoretical interest to their study, and measure the corresponding dimension with a construct valid measure. This may enhance predictive validity and reveal which aspects of employee discretion are driving the observed results. Such research will facilitate the development of more targeted organizational interventions.

A cleaner assessment of employee discretion will also facilitate the ability to generate reviews and meta-analyses summarizing relationships with employee discretion. Primary studies have not typically provided enough information about organizational policies for meta-analyses to-date to indicate whether a policy provided discretion over *when, where,* or *how* work was conducted. Rather, authors of meta-analyses either have not included this information in their examination or assumed which dimensions were present when information was not listed, based on common practices (e.g., telework coded as flextime and flexplace; Allen et al., 2013). However, many studies include elements of multiple (if not all) dimensions of discretion, confounding the effects and leading to confusing results. Future research can provide information to not only clarify that these policies differ in nature, but to provide adequate information for meta-analytic investigations, the development of a more comprehensive nomological net, and accurate research connecting antecedents and outcomes with dimensions of discretion.

Relationships between micro and macro *when* with work and nonwork outcomes were of relatively equal strength. The strongest relationships for all dimensions were with the outcomes life satisfaction and burnout. However, the composite assessment of discretion over *when* (both micro and macro) had the strongest relationships with all outcomes. Additionally, the composite *when* had stronger relationships with all outcome variables than either discretion over *how* or *where*. These results are consistent with previous research identifying discretion over *when* as a stronger predictor of nonwork

related outcomes than discretion over *where* (Allen et al., 2013). Thus, when considering all the various dimensions or aspects of employee discretion, it appears that discretion over *when* work is conducted (including the ability to control scheduling work tasks) is particularly beneficial for both employees and their organizations.

These results suggest that the dimensions of employee discretion may be hierarchically organized in terms of potential benefits to the employee. Specifically, relative to the other dimensions, discretion over *when* work is conducted (both micro and macro dimensions) is of most value to employees and employers, and thus should be prioritized when possible over other forms of discretion. If this is not an option, then offering one form (micro or macro), or discretion over *where* would offer many positive benefits for both employees and employers. Finally, these results suggest, that while offering discretion over *how* tasks are conducted may offer the least amount of beneficial outcomes, there are still positive outcomes associated with this dimension, therefore it is still a valuable organizational tool.

The underlying explanation for a discretion hierarchy may lie in the finite resource of time. As Perlow (1999) describes, employees frequently experience a "time famine," or more demands in their work and nonwork roles than time in which to complete these demands. Therefore, employee discretion over when (in both the task and role domains) may provide increased ability to manage this finite resource and reduce conflict. Similarly, discretion over *where* work is conducted often eliminates other tasks (e.g., commuting to and from work), during which other work/nonwork demands could

be completed. Therefore, while the dimension of *where* does not directly contribute to one's ability to manage his/her schedule, it may indirectly facilitate time management by reducing extraneous tasks and/or allowing tasks in multiple domains to be completed simultaneously.

One of the contributions of this study is the identification of areas of overlap and inconsistency between the job characteristics and work-family literatures. Consistent with Hackman and Oldham (1975), most measures of job autonomy include elements of "schedule control" (micro *when*) as well as "method control" (*how*). Typically, measures of job autonomy do not distinguish between these two dimensions in their results, but rather acknowledge that these are simply two facets of "job autonomy." The results of the current study indicate that discretion over *when* work is conducted has stronger relationships with more desirable outcomes than does discretion over *how* or *where*. Therefore, it appears that future research in both job characteristics/design as well work and family roles should consider the impact of discretion over *when* work is conducted on outcomes.

Applied Implications

The results of this study indicate that management can expect both positive employee and organizational outcomes when offering discretion policies/practices. Organizations may be limited in which form they can offer, due to the types of work they perform or the nature of the industry they are a part of. However, this study identified multiple benefits associated with each form of discretion.

Overall employee discretion (in various forms) has been linked with numerous advantages for organizations (Allen et al., 2013; Baltes et al., 1999; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). However, the current study's results suggest that the unique dimensions have differential relationships with specific outcomes. Organizations can implement employee discretion policies in order to improve both employee outcomes as well as strategically enhance organizational objectives. Specifically, allowing discretion over *when* and *where* employees conduct their work tasks can allow organizations to increase availability to clients. Organizations wishing to become more global can enhance customer service by extending the time that customer service representatives are available. Similarly, offering discretion over work location enables employees to work farther from the central work site, which can increase the number of locations organizations can reach out to potential (as well as current) clients.

In addition, offering discretion over *when* and *where* work is conducted has a beneficial impact on employee health and well-being outcomes. Increases in employee health translates to cost-savings for organizations related to lower absenteeism/number of sick days, lower healthcare costs on the part of the organization, and reduced costs associated with organizational wellness programs (Parks & Steelman, 2008)

Organizations that currently offer employee discretion or are considering implementing these types of policies to enhance strategic goals should take care to properly assess employee discretion policies to make sure they are being implemented as they were initially conceived and resulting the outcomes originally sought. For instance,

a policy designed to provide employees discretion over both *when* and *where* they work (e.g., telework) may only allow for discretion over *where* work is conducted if the employee is expected to work the same hours s/he worked at the main worksite. Additionally, a policy purporting to offer discretion over *when* work is conducted which actually forces employees to work extra hours is not likely to have the desired outcomes employers are hoping for (i.e., extra hours may be perceived as unpaid overtime which can lead to burnout and other negative outcomes). Similarly, organizations expanding their availability to clients should take precautions to ensure that employees have latitude over their schedules rather than being forced into working inconvenient shifts that may actually lead to negative outcomes rather than positive ones. Therefore, it is crucial that organizations purposefully design, implement, and assess employee discretion policies in order to maximize beneficial outcomes for all parties.

Finally, the results of this study suggest that employees with high levels of role ambiguity are not as likely to benefit from employee discretion as other employees. Organizations may find it useful to offer training for how to successfully work using various forms of employee discretion for organizational newcomers. This will likely facilitate their understanding of their roles within the organization and enable them to benefit from these policies. Additionally, training managers and employees in time management strategies and task prioritization will enable all members of the organization to become more efficient, particularly those utilizing discretion policies.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Like all research, this study has limitations that should be acknowledged. First and foremost, because this study was part of a university-wide survey to assess climate which is of interest to several stakeholders, the number of items that could be administered was restricted. Therefore, the majority of the constructs (including those assessing dimensions of discretion) were assessed with three items each. That said, estimates of reliability were not a concern. Additionally, common method bias is always somewhat of a concern in studies obtaining information from a single source. However, some types of constructs are best assessed by the participants themselves (e.g., degree of job discretion, job satisfaction, burnout).

The results of this study are bound by the sample examined and the context in which the data were collected. The sample consisted of university faculty members at a Research I institution. The job of a faculty member is known to have a good amount of autonomy (Ferrara, 1998; Garrison, 2005); thus, compared to other occupations, discretion scores for the present sample were likely negatively skewed and suffered from some range restriction. As depicted in Table 2 for all the discretion dimensions of interest, the average discretion score was above 4.0 and *SD*s were less than 1.0. On the other hand, because of the resulting increase in difficulty to find significant effects, this study can be considered a conservative test of the hypothesized effects of discretion, finding many significant relationships. Thus, the effect sizes reported in this study may be an underestimate of the true effect sizes.

Discretion items from previous studies needed to be modified for appropriateness. Specifically, all discretion items were modified to explicitly describe "research tasks" so that faculty would hone in on a subset of their duties over which they were expected to have the most discretion over compared to teaching and service and respondents would focus on a relatively similar subset of duties. It may be useful to confirm the assumption that faculty members tend to have the most discretion over their research compared to their teaching and service and explore the impact of having variable amounts of discretion over one's three primary duties.

The wording of the discretion items may have shaped faculty members' responses to items designed to address discretion originating in the work and nonwork domains. While it was hypothesized that *how* and *micro when* would have stronger relationships with work outcomes (and *where/macro when* with nonwork), the strongest relationships were between both forms of *when* and work outcomes (followed by *where*). This may be partially due to the nature of the items, which featured the work domain (research tasks) to the exclusion of the nonwork domain. The domain-specificity hypothesis contends that predictors of work-related outcomes originate in the work domain, whereas predictors of the nonwork domain originate in the nonwork domain (Allen et al., 2013; Frone, 2003; Mesmer-Magnus, & Viswesvaran, 2005). Some measures of employee discretion (see Table 1) are worded in a way that highlights the ability to control *when/where* work is conducted relative to nonwork demands. An

example of this type of an item might be "I have the discretion to schedule my work tasks around my nonwork demands."

Similarly, discretion and work-nonwork researchers typically measure both directions of the broad "work-to-nonwork conflict" construct (work-to-nonwork and nonwork-to-work) in order to account for the bidirectionality of this construct. In the current study, work-to-nonwork conflict was examined as an outcome of discretion, but nonwork-to-work conflict was not examined. This was an intentional decision; as discussed above, predictors such as employee discretion residing in the work domain are expected to relate more strongly to outcomes initiating in the work domain (Allen et al., 2013; Frone, 2003; Mesmer-Magnus, & Viswesvaran, 2005). Future research should examine the extent to which various forms of employee discretion are related to work and nonwork outcomes when the nonwork domain is highlighted in the items as well as nonwork-to-work conflict as an outcome of interest.

Finally, this study focused on outcomes of the dimensions of employee discretion. Future studies should examine antecedents of the multiple dimensions of discretion, such as individual differences (e.g., preference for segmentation) and organizational characteristics (e.g., climate for flexibility or family support), as well as the extent to which there are unique predictors for each type. This is likely to be especially relevant across various job domains, as certain types of jobs lend themselves to specific types of discretion more readily than others. Additionally, future research should examine how variables used as controls (e.g., number of dependents, marital

status) in the current study may play meaningful roles in the relationship between discretion and outcomes.

Conclusions

The ability to decide *when*, *where*, or *how* one works is appealing to many individuals. Understanding the distinctions among each dimension and how they relate to outcomes is a key step in developing a cohesive framework for studying employee discretion as well as successfully designing and implementing discretion policies in organizations.

By identifying and providing initial evidence that employee discretion consists of multiple distinct dimensions as well as how each dimension relates to important work and nonwork outcomes, the current study allows for greater understanding and effective implementation of policies granting employee discretion. The results of this study suggest that overall, employee discretion benefits both employees and the organization. Organizations considering implementing formal discretion policies should consider the many positive outcomes associated with employee discretion. While many jobs are limited as to what type of discretion can be offered, designing a policy to offer some form of discretion to employees can lead to positive outcomes for individuals and the employer.

Finally, because of the distinct nature of each dimension, researchers and organizations should take care to accurately assess dimensions of discretion. While each form leads to positive outcomes, the relationships with outcomes are not identical across

all dimensions. However, organizations instituting any form of discretion should realize positive outcomes, no matter the employee's age, gender, disposition, or job type. The results of this study suggest that while each dimension of employee discretion is distinct, they are all overall beneficial.

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APPENDIX

Survey Materials

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements. 5-point agreement scale (1=strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree, NA) unless otherwise indicated.

Autonomy/Discretion
For the next set of items, please think ONLY about your research related tasks and responsibilities (as opposed to your teaching, service, and/or administrative responsibilities).

How
a. I am allowed to decide the methods I use to get my research done.
b. I have discretion over the procedures I use when conducting my research.
c. I am free to choose the method(s) I use to conduct research-related tasks.
When (Task Sequencing/Micro)
d. I have control over the scheduling of my research tasks.
e. I have control over the sequencing of my research activities (i.e., when I do what).
f. I decide the order in which I complete research-related tasks.
Criteria
g. I can modify the way I am evaluated so that I can emphasize some aspects of my research and play down others.
h. I am able to modify my research objectives (what I am supposed to accomplish).
i. I have some control over what I am supposed to accomplish in my research.
When (Macro)
j. I decide when I start and stop working on research-related activities each day.
k. I decide when to do particular research activities.
l. I decide when I perform research-related tasks.
Where
m.I am able to choose where I conduct my research.
n. I can conduct my research-related tasks from the location of my choosing.
o. I decide where I perform research activities.

Work-to-nonwork (Between Role) Conflict

a. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.
b. On the job I have so much work to do that it takes away from my personal interests.
c. My family/friends dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work while I am at home.
d. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with family/friends.
e. I'm often too tired at work because of the things I have to do at home.
f. My personal demands are so great that it takes away from my work.
g. My superiors and peers dislike how often I am preoccupied with my personal life while at work.
h. My personal life takes up time that I'd like to spend at work.

(Within) Role Conflict

a. I often work on one research task at the expense of other research tasks.
b. I sometimes have to use research methods or equipment that I know are not the best.
c. I do not have sufficient resources to complete my research tasks.

Role Ambiguity

a. I know what research tasks I should devote the majority of my time to.
b. I know how to divide my time so I will accomplish my research goals.
c. I am certain how to allocate my time to research tasks.

Locus of Control

a. I believe success depends on ability rather than luck.
b. I believe that unfortunate events occur because of bad luck. (R)
c. I believe in the power of fate. (R)

Negative Affect from PANAS
This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on average. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all	a little	moderately	quite a bit	extremely

1. active
2. afraid
3. determined
4. nervous
5. attentive
6. upset
7. inspired
8. hostile
9. alert

Employee & Organizational Outcomes:
Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements. 5- point agreement scale (1=strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) unless otherwise indicated.

Turnover Intentions
a. I often think about quitting this job.
b. I am actively looking for another job.
c. I will probably look for a new job during the next year.

Burnout
a. I always find new and interesting aspects in my work.
b. I can stand the pressure of my work well.
c. Lately, I tend to think less during my work and just execute it mechanically.
d. During my work, I often feel emotionally drained.
e. Sometimes I feel really disgusted with my work.
f. After work, I usually feel worn out and weary.

Life Satisfaction
a. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
b. The conditions of my life are excellent.
c. I am satisfied with my life.
d. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.
e. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Physical Health/Physical Symptom Inventory

During the past year, how often did you experience the following symptoms? (0 = Never, 1 = Once, 2 = A Few Times, 3 = About Once a Month, 4 = A Few Times a Month, 5 = Once a Week or More)

a. An upset stomach or nausea
b. Trouble sleeping
c. Headache
d. Acid indigestion or heartburn
e. Diarrhea
f. Constipation
g. An infection
h. Tiredness or fatigue

Psychological Health Symptoms

During the PAST WEEK, have you been distressed by . . . (Not at all, a little bit, moderately, quite a bit, extremely)

a. Suddenly scared for no reason.
a. Temper outbursts that you could not control.
b. Feeling lonely.
c. Feeling tense or keyed up.
d. Feeling blue.
e. Feeling no interest in things.
f. Feeling fearful.
g. Having urges to break or smash things.
h. Getting into frequent arguments.